

*General History*  
*Way-Marks*



CHARLES C.  
BOYER



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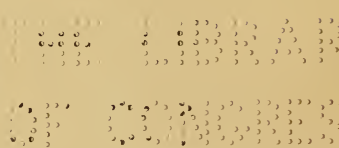
# GENERAL HISTORY WAY MARKS

*A Special Text designed to direct the Lesson-memory  
and Thought-connections of General  
History Students*

BY

CHARLES C. BOYER, PH.D.

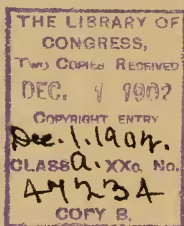
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## PREFACE



GENERAL history texts, in order to cover the ground satisfactorily from the side of information, have had to be stretched into very forbidding proportions. In the effort to conquer a million of the details thus offered to the student, he becomes a memory-slave and misses the vital thing in the study of history,—namely, the logical connections of events, or the science aspect. It is hoped that in building the logical connections so commonly missed by students into a shorter text rather than a skeleton outline, the writer may have succeeded in directing learners without delay to points of most importance from the thought side, redeeming them at the same time from aimless memory work.

And yet the highest interests of pedagogy, whether we consider roundness of culture or breadth of scholarship, demand the laboratory, or library method of study, along the lines of thought embodied in this shorter text. The book is, therefore, never to be used alone, but always in connection with larger texts, such as Myers, Duruy, etc., together with cyclopædias and reference-books. As a thought-companion, holding the pupil to the logic of events and guiding his judgment in his

cumulations of facts, details, names, places, etc., this text ought to serve a much-felt need in our secondary schools. Sincerely hoping that the book may accomplish its purpose, the author respectfully offers it to his friends.

CHAS. C. BOYER.



# CONTENTS



	PAGE
PREFACE .....	3
INTRODUCTION .....	7
History as Science.....	7
The Origin of Nations.....	7
ANCIENT TIMES .....	9
China .....	11
India .....	14
Egypt ✓.....	17
Chaldea .....	21
Assyria ✓.....	21
Babylonia ✓.....	22
Hebrews ✓.....	25
Phœnicians ✓.....	28
Persia ✓.....	30
Greeks ✓.....	33
Romans .....	49
MIDDLE AGES .....	81
Teutonic Kingdoms.....	81
Conversion of Barbarians.....	82
Monasticism .....	82
Romance Nations.....	83
Mohammedans .....	84
Franks .....	85
Norsemen .....	87
The Popes of the Middle Ages.....	88
Feudalism .....	91
Chivalry .....	92
Crusades .....	93
Turanians of the Middle Ages.....	94
City Republics of the Middle Ages.....	95

	PAGE
The Nations of the Middle Ages.....	96
England .....	97
France .....	99
Spain .....	101
Germany .....	102
Russia .....	103
Italy .....	103
Northern Countries.....	104
Formation of National Literatures.....	104
Revival of Learning.....	106
MODERN AGES.....	111
The Age of Religious Revolts.....	112
Germany .....	112
Spain .....	114
England .....	116
Netherlands .....	119
France .....	122
Thirty Years' War.....	124
The Age of Political Revolutions.....	129
France .....	129
England .....	145
Germany .....	158
Kings of Prussia.....	159
Emperors of Germany.....	164
Russia .....	165
Italy .....	171
United States.....	173
Settlements .....	174
Colonial Wars.....	175
United States Government.....	177
United States Wars.....	179
United States Treaties.....	184
Material Resources .....	187
Population .....	187
Religion .....	188
Education .....	189
Literature .....	190
World Prospects.....	191
INDEX REMARKS .....	193

# GENERAL HISTORY

## WAY MARKS



HISTORY is the science of events. As a study the science of events begins with observation, the ascertainment of facts, as in the case of Penn's treaty with the Indians; through inductive comparison of causes, as in the case of wars, history rises to a knowledge of laws, or principles; and, finally, through deductive comparison the study of history becomes practical philosophy, the application of laws, or principles, to citizenship, statesmanship, and morality. Through conspicuous world-crises the course of events breaks up for students into ancient, mediæval, and modern periods.

### THE ORIGIN OF NATIONS

#### RACES

The human race, divided, as it commonly is, into races, on the bases of variations in form, features, and color, probably had its origin in Asia. Overpopulation caused successive waves of migration. Thus arose the differences that now justify race-distinctions. If the Turanian, or Yellow race, gradually covering Asia, Europe, and America,

was the original race, and the Flood was not geographically universal, the present race-differences are readily explained as the effect of new environments. According to the foregoing hypothesis, the Caucasian, or White race, became the active, or historical race.

### NATIONS

Over-population after the Flood, causing migrations as before, produced the Hamites of Egypt, the Semites of the Tigris-Euphrates basin, etc., and the Aryans, or Indo-European nations. Emigrations from the nest-places of civilization, together with subsequent conquests and commingling of nations, account sufficiently for present national characteristics, such as differences in language, customs, powers, etc. The process of race differentiation has not ceased by any means, but will eventually find its limits in geographical grand divisions and the predominance of superior civilizations.

ANCIENT TIMES



# CHINA

## POLITICAL HISTORY

### THE CHINESE

THE valley of the Yellow River was settled by a wandering band of Turanians probably before 3000 B.C. This settlement was the origin of the Chinese nation.

### EMPIRE

(1) The government of China is a parental monarchy, subject to ancient laws and customs. (2) Che Hwang-te, the most illustrious of the ancient emperors, overthrew the feudal system into which the government had degenerated, and restored the empire. In order to stop the incursions of the nomad Tartars he constructed the Great Wall, and, when the Classics were quoted against his reformatory innovations, he burned all the books that he could find and persecuted men of letters. His reign, which lasted from 246 to 210 B.C., was followed by centuries of political power and internal energy. (3) During the Middle Ages, China, then known as Cathay, together with the rest of Asia and parts of Europe, suffered greatly at the hands of the Mongol conquerors, Genghis Khan and his descendant Tamerlane. (4) In 1644 the Manchu Tartars invaded the Celestial

Empire and founded the present Tsin dynasty. The Manchu emperors have always opposed innovations, adhering strictly to ancient customs and laws. This anti-foreign policy has caused serious conflicts with European nations, the latest trouble being that of the "Boxers." At this writing the emperor of China, a man of progressive ideas, is overruled by the dowager queen. The late Li Hung Chang and the learned Wu Ting Fang deserve attention.

## CIVILIZATION

### RELIGION

(1) The ancestral ideal of the Chinese was embodied into a religious system by Confucius, or Kong the Philosopher. (2) It is a system of political and social morals, from which the idea of God and immortality are practically absent. (3) Buddhism and Taoism have been added to Chinese Confucianism.

### LITERATURE

(1) The literature of the Chinese consists chiefly of the so-called Nine Classics, a collection of works some of which are very ancient and all of which are held in great esteem. The disciples of Confucius wrote the last four books, probably in the fifth and fourth century before Christ. (2) The Nine Classics have to do fundamentally with the relations of parents and children, husband and wife, sovereign and subject, superiors and infe-



riors. Justice, uprightness, universal charity, and conformity with the customs of ancestors are enjoined upon all Chinese alike. (3) The Nine Classics, with filial piety as the basis of all prescriptions, have furnished the policy and aim of the Chinese Empire through all its centuries of existence. Inasmuch as the Chinese language is ideographic, consisting of about fifty thousand characters, at least five thousand of which it is necessary for ordinary readers to know, the masses of China have not been able to keep pace with other nations.

#### SOCIETY

(1) A parental monarchy, China does not tolerate castes and slaves. (2) The masses are subordinate directly to the emperor, who is nevertheless relieved in the government of his vast empire by princes. Ancestral customs control even the minutest detail in the conduct of the nation and its communities. (3) Among the results are social contentment and national continuance, together with serious arrest of development in nearly all other directions.

References : (1) Myers ; (2) Duruy ; (3) *Outlook*, July 12, 1902 ; (4) "Village Life in China."

# INDIA

## THE HINDOOS

MORE than fifteen centuries before Christ, Aryan conquerors from Bactria entered the valleys of the Indus and the Ganges, subjugating all non-Aryan aborigines and producing a rigid caste system. Thus began the Hindoo nation.

## POLITICAL HISTORY

### NATIONAL LIFE

The Hindoos, a poetic and religious people, have almost no political history prior to Alexander's conquest of India, 327 B.C. From that time on its systems of philosophy, its wealth, and its commerce have been important factors in the world's history. In our days India is subject to Great Britain, and is rapidly undergoing great changes in religion and customs.

## CIVILIZATION

### SYSTEM OF CASTES

(1) The conflict of races in Northern India gave rise to what is known as castes, or rigid hereditary social divisions. (2) The Brahmans, or priests, the Kshatriyas, or warriors, and the Vaisyas, or laborers and merchants, representing the

Aryan conquerors, were the ruling castes. The Sudras, or artisans, were the despised and oppressed non-Aryan aborigines. Violation of caste regulations produced the Pariahs, or outcasts. (3) The sacerdotal supremacy to which the other castes have so long been subordinate, has had remarkable intellectual and moral consequences for the Hindoos.

### LITERATURE

(1) The Brahmans, writing in Sanskrit, probably the oldest language in the world, produced a voluminous sacred literature. (2) The Vedas, like the Mahabharata, sometimes called the Indian Iliad, relate the Aryan conquests of India, but contain remarkably beautiful hymns, together with thousands of ceremonial caste prescriptions, social and religious. (3) The ideals set up in this Indian literature have continued dominant up to our times, and are only slowly giving way to foreign influence.

### RELIGION

(1) The original nature-worship of the Aryans soon developed into pantheism in India. (2) Accordingly, Brahma, an impersonal force, is the source and end of all things. The Hindoo counts on ascetic perfections and transmigration of souls as an ultimate restoration to blessedness in Brahma. (3) In the sixth century before Christ Gautama, an Indian Prince, surnamed Buddha, or the Wise,

reformed Brahmanism, adding the doctrine of Nirvana, or deliverance, and offering all religious rights to all castes. Buddhism gained the ascendancy over Brahmanism for centuries, but, by the eighth century after Christ, it was driven out of almost every part of India. Wonderful to say, however, it has, through the missionary zeal of its adherents, become the creed of about one-third of the human race.

References : (1) Myers ; (2) Duruy.

# EGYPT

## THE EGYPTIANS

A HAMITIC migration across the isthmus of Suez, antedating the Turanian settlement of China, was the origin of the ancient Egyptians, a race distinguished for its ambitious kings and its learned priests.

## POLITICAL HISTORY

### NATIONAL LIFE

(1) The history of Egypt is inseparably connected with its unique climate and the river Nile. (2) The first great capital of Egypt was Memphis, founded by the mythical Menes of the First Dynasty. Historians enumerate more than thirty Egyptian dynasties, or races of kings. (3) The Fourth, or Pyramid Dynasty, was so called because ambitious kings, like Kufu I., built massive granite pyramids, or royal tombs, principally at Gizeh. (4) The Twelfth Dynasty, with its royal seat at Thebes, was a brilliant but short-lived dynasty. It was overthrown by Semitic invaders from Syria. These conquerors are known as Hyksos, or Shepherd Kings. Memphis was their capital. They allowed the Hebrews to settle in Egypt, and reigned about five hundred years. (5) Amosis,

conqueror of the Hyksos, founded the Eighteenth Dynasty, best represented by Thothmes III. He built famous obelisks and began to build the renowned temple of Karnak. (6) The best kings of the Nineteenth Dynasty were Seti I. and his son, Rameses II., great warriors and builders. Seti I. added the Hall of Columns to the temple of Karnak, and began a Suez canal. Rameses II., reigning sixty-seven years, built obelisks, erected temples, and made the Hebrews his slaves. It was during his son's reign that the exodus took place. (7) With the beginning of the Twentieth Dynasty, Egypt, through her expansion policy, began to decline. (8) Psammetichus, the founder of the Twenty-sixth Dynasty, employed Greek mercenaries, thus causing many of his own soldiers to revolt, but giving great advantages to foreign countries. His son, Necho II., to facilitate commerce, attempted to reopen the canal of Seti and Rameses. (9) Cambyses, King of Persia, overthrew the government of Egypt, 527 B.C. Since that day Egypt has never been independent. Through Alexander's conquest (331 B.C.) began the dynasty of his successors, the world-famous Ptolemies, whose last representative, the beautiful Cleopatra, died 30 B.C. Then came the Romans, followed by the Moslems, and, in the time of Louis IX. and Napoleon, by the French. Great Britain has now gained a foothold, and serious conflicts may be expected.

## CIVILIZATION

### RELIGION

(1) "Two religions existed side by side, the one held by the people, the other by the priests." The former was the old African fetichism, coarse and material, and it held that certain animals, as the apis and beetle, were divine. "The latter religion sought to account for the mysterious phenomena of nature, and explained the good and evil encountered everywhere by the opposition of two principles as Osiris, the representative of all beneficent influences, and Typhon the god of night and of evil days." (2) Accordingly, among the fundamental ideas of the religion of ancient Egypt were the doctrines of an absolute and eternal God, the immortality of the soul, the rehabilitation of bodies, and the sacredness of certain animals. (3) The results were respectively such writings as the Book of the Dead, and such customs as the judgment of the dead, the embalming of bodies for burial, and the worship of animals.

### LITERATURE

(1) Side by side with arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, etc., which were highly developed for practical and scientific purposes, the priests embodied their religious ideals in a voluminous sacred literature, (2) the burden of which was ceremonial prescription, as in Ptahhotep's book for the

dead. The language of ancient Egypt was ideographic, and the characters are best known as hieroglyphics, or priest sculptures. Out of this original form grew two others, the hieratic and the demotic, which must be carefully distinguished by history-students. (3) Through the inscriptions of the so-called Rosetta stone, found in 1799, we may now read the thoughts of ancient Egypt.

### ARCHITECTURE

(1) The immortality ideal is conspicuously the motive idea in Egyptian architecture, as we see from its massiveness and the selection of rock materials. (2) Among the best illustrations of this idea are the pyramids, obelisks, statues, temples, sepulchres, etc., all of which deserve careful study. (3) The remains and fate of these impressive architectural triumphs are exceedingly instructive and interesting.

### ARTS

The Egyptians successfully cultivated many of the industrial arts, as well as mechanics, geometry, and astronomy.

### SOCIETY

Originally Egypt had no caste system of society. By and by, however, we find a system something like that of India, but less rigid. The laws of ancient Egypt were marvellously wise and just.

References : (1) Myers ; (2) Duruy.



# ASSYRIA

## THE NATIONS

THREE great empires, the Chaldean, the Assyrian, and the Babylonian, rose and fell in the Tigris-Euphrates valley. With the exception of the Turanian admixtures, they were Semites, like the Hebrews and Arabs, and their attainments at Babylon and Nineveh rivalled those of the Egyptians, whose contemporaries they were from most early times.

## POLITICAL HISTORY

### CHALDEA

(1) Sargon, the first prominent Chaldean monarch, organized the peoples of the plains, founded cities, patronized literature, and carried on wars. About two thousand years before Christ, the Elamites plundered the Chaldean cities and subjugated the people. By and by Babylon became the leading city of Chaldea, but in 1300 B.C. the Assyrians conquered the Chaldeans and ruled over them for six centuries.

### ASSYRIA

The Assyrians, whose royal city was Nineveh, did not become very prominent until the eighth

century before Christ. Among the landmarks of Assyrian history are the reigns of Sargon, Sennacherib, Sardanapalus, and Saracus. Sargon despoiled Samaria, defeated the Egyptians and their allies in a great battle, and erected a wonderful palace. His son, Sennacherib, besieged Jerusalem, and spent his closing years in building canals and palaces. Sardanapalus chastised the enemies of his empire in swift campaigns, and then made sculptured records of his victories. He was a patron of art and literature. Saracus was the last of the long line of Assyrian kings. After many provincial rebellions against him, the oppressor was finally overthrown by his Babylonian general, Nabopolassar, assisted, as it appears, by the Medes, 606 B.C.

### BABYLONIA

Nabopolassar founded Babylonia, acquiring large accessions of territory. His renowned son, Nebuchadnezzar, sacked Jerusalem and carried its people captive to Babylon. He is best remembered as the builder of a city-wall, the Hanging Gardens of Babylon, and a great palace. The Babylonian empire came to an end with the reign of Nabonadius and his associate, Belshazzar. In spite of wonderful defences, Babylon was captured by Cyrus, the strong and ambitious sovereign of the Medes and Persians, 538 B.C.

## CIVILIZATION

### RELIGION

(1) The commingling of Turanian and Semitic stocks produced a hybrid religion, known as Baal-worship. (2) Baal-worship consisted of Turanian Shamanism, or spirit-worship, and of Semitic Sabæanism, or star-worship. Besides numerous lesser and local deities, the perfected system recognized twelve primary Gods, at whose head stood Il, or Ra. (3) Among the products of Baal-worship may be mentioned magic, and the celebrated tower and pyramid temples, all of which deserve careful study.

### LITERATURE

(1) Nature and religion conspired to produce the literature of the Tigris-Euphrates nations. (2) Among the noteworthy specimens are the Chaldean Genesis, the Chaldean Epic of Izdubar, and the Will of Sennacherib, all of which deserve our careful study. Clay tablet books, with cuneiform scripts, were collected into famous libraries, as at Erech, Babylon, and Nineveh. (3) Under the ruined palace mounds, such as the Koyunjik of Nineveh, well-preserved tablet books have been found, and, through the inscriptions on the Behistun rock, translations have become accessible.

### ARCHITECTURE

(1) Government and religion, as elsewhere, produced palaces, monuments, and temples in the

Tigris-Euphrates valley. (2) Although stone was to be had in Assyria, the Assyrians, like the Chaldeans and Babylonians, used chiefly sun-dried bricks in the erection of their buildings. With the exception of the temples, even palaces were made only one story high, but the ornamentation was profuse and artistic. For important reasons the palaces were placed upon lofty artificial terraces, or platforms. (3) All that remains of palaces and temples are palace-mounds like the Koyunjik at Nineveh, the temple-mound, Birs Nimrud, and wall mounds.

#### **SOCIETY**

The people of the Tigris-Euphrates valley were religious, but cruel. The kings were absolute rulers, ambitious despots who stopped at nothing in the attainment of their ends. The only social distinctions were those of sovereign and subject; there was no such thing as castes.

References : (1) Myers ; (2) Duruy.

# THE HEBREWS

## ORIGIN

EMIGRATING from Chaldea about 2000 B.C., a Semite, Abram (or Abraham), with his family, finally settled in Canaan, and thus became the father or founder of the Hebrew people.

## POLITICAL HISTORY

### EGYPT

Famine arising, the Hebrews of the patriarch Jacob's time were settled in Goshen through the influence of his son Joseph at the Egyptian court of the Shepherd Kings, or Hyksos. They prospered greatly under the Hyksos, but were oppressed and enslaved by the Pharaohs of the eighteenth and nineteenth dynasties. Moses delivered them from bondage in the year 1490 B.C. God, through Moses and forty years of training, formed his ransomed wanderers into the Hebrew nation.

### CANAAN

Joshua, the successor of Moses, crossed the Jordan, captured Jericho, and divided the Promised Land among the Twelve Tribes of Israel. Then followed a period of uncertain national union, and it became necessary repeatedly for God to rescue the Chosen People through heroes, such as Gideon and Samuel, who also ruled or judged the people.

Finally, after much urging by the Hebrews, God gave them King Saul. Then followed David, the warrior poet, and Solomon, each one ruling forty years. When Solomon died (975 B.C.), his son's arrogance caused the Ten Tribes of Israel to secede from the other Two Tribes, henceforth known as the Tribes of Judah. Samaria became the capital of Israel, and the rival of Jerusalem.

### **EXILE AND DOWNFALL**

Idolatry caused the downfall of both kingdoms. Sargon carried the Ten Tribes into Assyria, where they were absorbed and lost. Nebuchadnezzar carried the Two Tribes to Babylon. In 538 B.C. Cyrus, the conqueror of Babylon, allowed the captive Jews to return to Jerusalem, where they maintained themselves as a nation for six centuries against great odds. Since the overthrow of the city by the Roman Titus, 70 A.D., the Jews have been wanderers on the face of the whole earth.

## **CIVILIZATION**

### **RELIGION**

(1) One God and the immortality of the soul have been the fundamental points in the religion of the Hebrews, and (2) for these points they have contended valiantly through all their wanderings. (3) The moral system of the laws of Moses has become the basis of all civilizations, and is surpassed only by that of Christ, to which it, as a school-master, leads us.

**LITERATURE**

(1) The literature of the Hebrews is a direct product of their religion. (2) It consists of the Old Testament, and, growing out of it, the New Testament, together with the Apocrypha, the Talmud, and the writings of Josephus. (3) It goes without question that the Bible as literature has helped to mould the literature of all civilized lands, and that as a moral agency it is unsurpassed.

**SOCIETY**

(1) As the Chosen People of God, the Hebrews were controlled in all their relations by the Mosaic laws. (2) Among the fundamental principles controlling the life of the Jewish people were justice, equality, and purity. The law distinguished in favor of the poor. "It prohibited usury, enjoined alms, prescribed charity, even towards animals, and was kindly to the stranger." (3) "In this society, the stranger was no longer an enemy, the slave was still a man, and woman took her seat worthily beside the head of the family, enjoying the same respects." "Instead of the distinction of castes, the Hebrews had equality of citizenship before God." "If their priesthood became hereditary, the priests possessed only the inheritance of poverty." For art, science, and industry the Jews did nothing.

References : (1) Myers ; (2) Duruy.

# THE PHOENICIANS

PHOENICIA, a strip of broken sea-coast lying between the Mediterranean and the ranges of Mount Lebanon, was, for many centuries, the home of a maritime and trading people of Semitic origin.

## POLITICAL HISTORY

### GOVERNMENT

There never really was a Phoenician state, but "the various cities constituted a sort of confederacy, the petty states of which generally acknowledged the leadership, first of Sidon, and then that of Tyre." In her last centuries "Phoenicia was, for the most part, tributary to one or another of the great monarchies about her." The city of Tyre never recovered from Alexander's blow, 332 B.C.

### FOREIGN RELATIONS

The Phoenicians were the furnishing agents of the nations of antiquity, bringing them men, working-materials, ships, etc. Their services are inseparably connected with Solomon's Temple, Assyrian palaces, the Hellespontine bridges of Xerxes, and the naval enterprises of both Persians and Egyptians.



## CIVILIZATION

### COMMERCE

(1) "The lofty mountains that back the little strip of shore seemed to shut them out from a career of conquest and to prohibit an extension of their land domains. At the same time the Mediterranean in front invited them to maritime enterprise." (2) They established trading-posts at many points all along the shores of the Mediterranean and Black Seas, and even upon the islands of these seas. They dealt chiefly in bronze articles and purple. (3) Colonies, and among them especially Carthage, the great rival of ancient Rome, sprang up wherever the Phoenicians had established trading-posts. They introduced the alphabet, borrowed from Egypt, among all nations with which they traded. Many culture results accompanied this introduction of letters.

### CHARACTER

The Phoenicians cared little for religion, except as a means to the ends of commerce. The Moloch worship of this country was among the most revolting practices of those times, its chief purpose being the destruction of home-love, so much in the way of sailors and colonists. The sciences, except arithmetic and navigation, were almost wholly neglected. Of their social relations, their virtues and vices, we know nothing.

References : (1) Myers ; (2) Rosenkranz.

# PERSIA

## PERSIANS

AN Aryan migration contemporaneous with that which produced the Hindoos, was the origin of the Medes and Persians, the former becoming somewhat separate through non-Aryan admixtures.

## POLITICAL HISTORY

In distinction from the ancestral ideal of China and India, that of the ancient Persians was the "state," represented by the king.

## KINGS

(1) The founder of the Persian state was Cyrus, the grandson of the Median Astyages, whom he conquered, 559 B.C. He conquered the Lydians, whose king, the renowned Crœsus, had supported his brother-in-law, Astyages. Babylon fell into the hands of Cyrus, 538 B.C. He perished in a battle against the Scythians. (2) Cambyses, the son of Cyrus the Great, added Egypt to the domain of Persia. (3) A Magian usurper, Smerdis, was overthrown by the nobleman Darius, who became the greatest of Persian sovereigns. He conquered India, and governed his vast empire by means of satraps, or provincial governors. His invasions of Europe were failures, and in the year 490 B.C. he was badly defeated by the Greek Miltiades at Mar-

athon. (4) Darius dying soon after the battle of Marathon, his son Xerxes carried on the Græco-Persian war, as it is called, defeating the Spartan Leonidas at Thermopylæ (480 B.C.) and burning Athens. His forces, however, were defeated by Themistocles at Salamis, and by Pausanias at Plataea. After the defeat of his fleet at Mycale, on his own coast, the war came to its close. (5) "The power and supremacy of the Persian monarchy passed away with the reign of Xerxes. The last one hundred and forty years of the existence of the empire was a time of weakness and anarchy." The Macedonian Alexander finally overthrew Darius III., at Arbela, 334 B.C., thus ending the Persian empire.

## CIVILIZATION

### SOCIETY

(1) The "state" ideal was the basis of social divisions. (2) In effect, at least, the king of Persia was the state, except that he could not alter laws. He was advised by seven political princes, and by the Magi, or priests. The masses were simply the means to ends in the state. Women were held in slavish subjection, but boys were highly esteemed, as we see from the training of Cyrus. (3) This "state" system, like that of ancient Rome, produced a world empire. The simple habits of the early Persians, however, gave way to luxury and vice in the satrapal periods of the em-

pire, until, in spite of its complex spy-system, Persia crumbled under its own weight.

### RELIGION

(1) The renowned Zoroaster, who probably lived more than a thousand years before Christ, was the Moses of the Persians. (2) His religious doctrines are embodied in the Zend-Avesta, the Persian Bible. Zoroaster taught that Ormazd, the god of light, would eventually conquer Ahriman, the god of darkness and evil, but that man, whose soul is immortal, must enlist on the side of the good god in his conquests. (3) This religious system, something like the Jewish system, was of immense advantage to the morality and government of Persia. The peculiar disposal of the Persian dead ought to be very interesting to students of history.

### ARTS

(1) There was no room for the sciences in the "state" ideal of the Persians, and none for literature except that of the Avesta, now translated by the help of the Behistun inscriptions, nor did the religious ideal call for temples, since mountain-altars for animal sacrifice sufficed for the Parsees, or Fire-worshippers of Persia. (2) The "state" ideal, however, called for magnificent palaces and tombs, the best examples of which are (3) the marble remains at Persepolis and Pasargadæ.

References : (1) Myers ; (2) Duruy.

# THE GREEKS

THE geography and geographical relations of Greece are points of which history-students must make very sure, in order to understand the life, character, and history of the Greeks.

## POLITICAL HISTORY

### ORIGIN

The Aryan migrations, which produced the Hindoos and Persians, were followed by the Græco-Italic waves. Thus came the Pelasgians, followed by the Hellenes, who gradually absorbed the Pelasgians. There were four tribes of Hellenes, but the political history of Hellas—*i.e.*, Greece and her colonies—is chiefly that of the Ionians and the Dorians, whose opposite traits made them perpetual rivals. The primary elements of Greek culture came to them through such Asiatic immigrants as the legendary Cecrops, Cadmus, and Pelops. The mountains helped to divide the Greeks politically into city-states, best represented by Athens, the head of the Ionians, and Sparta, the head of the Dorians.

### LEGENDS

Such hero-legends as those of Hercules, the Argonauts, and Troy, help us to understand the Greek

mind, and lead up to history proper. (1) The legend of Hercules and his twelve labors is a sun-myth, a Greek version of the epic of Izdubar; it reveals the Greek tendency to deify and worship heroes. (2) The legend of the Argonauts is a nature-myth, representing the history of a rain-cloud, and glorifying some successful maritime adventures. (3) The siege of Troy, caused by the abduction of Queen Helen by Prince Paris, lasted ten years, the Greeks winning, 1184 B.C., through the stratagem of the wooden horse. Resting on facts, as we now know, the story is a legend only in its Homeric garb. In its Homeric form, the story is an eloquent portrayal of the Greek ideal of beauty, so dominant in Greek history, literature, and art. The pathetic description of the return of the Greek chieftains is particularly significant of the Greek social ideals. (4) The legend of the Dorian migration is remarkably interesting as a connecting link with true history. According to this legend, when the one hundred years of their exile were over the descendants of Hercules returned from the North, establishing themselves as masters in the Peloponnesus. The pre-historic migration itself is a fact, and the resulting unrest of Greece set into motion those migrations into Asia Minor, etc., which ultimately enlarged Greece into the greater Hellas of the Mediterranean coasts.

**SPARTA**

The Dorian conquerors founded Sparta in Laconia. Henceforth they were known as the Spartans. The subjugated Achæans, who were allowed to retain possession of their lands, are known as the Pericæci. The slaves, or Helots, were the property of the state. The hated Spartans could maintain their supremacy only at the sword's point. Accordingly, the famous Lycurgus of the ninth century B.C. planned a constitution which the Spartans finally adopted. Among other things he provided for two kings, a senate of elders, and a popular assembly. His land and money regulations, together with those pertaining to public tables, and the education of the young Spartans, were certainly well adapted to the purposes of Sparta, as her wars and conquests prove; but Lycurgus sacrificed mind for body and individuals for the state. As might have been expected, Sparta bequeathed nothing to posterity.

**ATHENS**

The population of Attica, the state of which Athens was the capital, besides containing non-Hellenic admixtures, was essentially Ionic in race. In contrast with that of Sparta, the site of Athens was quite conspicuous. Diversity of character made Athens the perpetual rival of Sparta. At first Athens, like Sparta, was ruled by kings, but after the patriotic self-sacrifice of Codrus, elective

rulers called archons were substituted for hereditary kings. Thus the old Homeric monarchy had become an aristocratic oligarchy, and the condition of the masses became distressing. The revolution of Cylon followed, and by and by the people began to insist on written laws. The first constitution of Athens, accordingly, was framed by Draco, but, the condition of the poor growing worse and worse, the cruel laws of Draco had to be revised. It was done by the wise Solon, who favored the oppressed in various ways, and restored the ancient tribunal of Areopagus. Presently, however, his ambitious nephew, Pisistratus, seized the government. Thus began the admirable reign of this first Athenian usurper, or tyrant. The unfortunate reign of his sons ended in the expulsion of Hippias, 510 B.C. Through Clisthenes, who now espoused the cause of the people, Solon's democracy was restored, with Athenian citizenship for all the free inhabitants of Attica. The most characteristic of the innovations of Clisthenes was ostracism, which deserves our careful attention. The attempt of the jealous Spartans to restore Hippias to power in Athens now helped directly to bring about the memorable Græco-Persian war.

#### GRAECO-PERSIAN WAR

(1) The desire of Darius to punish Athens for supporting the Asiatic Greeks in an uprising against him caused the war. (2) The first expe-



dition was a failure. In 490 B.C. Miltiades defeated the Persians so badly at Marathon that, after an attempt on Athens the next day, they returned to Asia. The fate of Miltiades is particularly pathetic. Themistocles, who foresaw the danger, prepared for another Persian invasion, and his opponent, Aristides the just, was ostracized. Xerxes, who succeeded his father, made immense preparations, and, while Themistocles was trying to unite the jealous Greeks, he began his march. After rebuilding the Hellespontine bridges, he crossed the Hellespont with his ten thousand immortals, followed by an immense host, while his fleet passed through the canal of Cape Athos. At Thermopylæ he finally defeated the brave Leonidas, 480 B.C., and, marching southward, burned Athens. In accordance with the advice of the Delphian oracle, Themistocles collected the soldiers of Attica into ships at Salamis, and, tricking the Persian fleet into a fight, he succeeded in winning a decisive victory. The battles of Plataea and Mycale followed in 479 B.C., and ended the war.\* (3) As a result of the war, Athens was now supreme in Greece. The walls of Athens were rebuilt at once, and, in order to maintain the supremacy of Athens, the naval policy of Themistocles, who was ostracized soon afterwards, was adopted.

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\* It is interesting to find that the Greek Gelo defeated the Carthaginians at Himera on the battle-day of Salamis.

### CONFEDERACY OF DELOS

(1) "In order that they might be able to carry on the war more effectively against the Persians, the Ionian states of Asia Minor, the islands of the Ægean, and some of the states in Greece proper, shortly after the battle of Plataea, formed themselves into what is known as the Confederacy of Delos." For various reasons the alliance allowed Athens to assume the leadership, and Aristides became the first president of the league. (2) "The contributions assessed by Aristides upon the different members of the confederation consisted of ships and their crews for the larger states, and of money payments for the smaller ones," the depot of supplies being the island of Delos. "Very soon the restraints which Athens imposed upon her allies became irksome, and they began to refuse, one after another, to pay the assessment in any form." As fast, however, as the confederates seceded they were pressed back by famous generals, like Cimon, son of Miltiades, until (3) the confederacy had virtually become an empire of Athens, enriching her beyond all comparison with other Greek cities.

### AGE OF PERICLES

(1) "Under the inspiration of Pericles, the Athenian state now entered upon the most brilliant period of her history." The "golden age" of Athens is often called the Periclean Age. (2) Pericles, a most able and eloquent statesman, fos-

tered the naval power of Athens, adorned Athens with public buildings, and, in various ways, educated his people in politics and morality. "Never before had there been such a union of the material and intellectual elements of civilization at the seat of empire." (3) But the Periclean system of paying for the most common public services and granting gratuities encouraged idleness and sapped the Athenian democracy of its virtues. In the mean time, Sparta looked upon the prosperity of Athens with a very jealous eye.

#### PELOPONNESIAN WAR

(1) "The interference of Athens, on the side of the Corcyreans, in a quarrel between them and their mother city, Corinth," and other matters, induced jealous Sparta, the head of the Peloponnesus, to go to war with Athens. The antagonists were pretty equally matched. (2) An attack upon Plataea by the Thebans, 431 B.C., precipitated the war. Sparta at once invaded Attica. Pestilence followed in the wake of the siege of Athens. After the death of Pericles, demagogues, like Cleon, sorely mismanaged affairs. The cruel annihilations of Mytilene and Plataea were followed by the peace of Nicias, which was broken by the luckless expedition of the unprincipled Alcibiades. Finally, after the Spartan occupation of Decelea in Attica, and the capture of the Athenian fleet at Ægospotami by Lysander, the "long walls" of Athens

were levelled to the ground and Athens had lost her supremacy, 404 B.C. (3) "Sparta's power was now supreme."

### **SUPREMACY OF SPARTA**

(1) The Peloponnesian war placed Sparta at the head of Greece. (2) She played the tyrant for about thirty years. It was during this time that the philosopher Socrates was condemned to death. To this era also belongs the expedition of the "Ten Thousand Greeks," with which every student should be familiar. (3) The oppressive measures of Sparta caused her downfall at the hands of the Theban Epaminondas.

### **SUPREMACY OF THEBES**

(1) Epaminondas, with his "sacred band" and heavy columns, defeated the Spartans at Leuctra, 371 B.C., thus establishing Thebes as the head of Greece. (2) The nine years of Theban supremacy are memorable chiefly for the three brilliant campaigns of the great Epaminondas. (3) Finally, he won the battle of Mantinea, but was mortally wounded. "With him fell the hopes and power of Thebes."

### **SUPREMACY OF MACEDONIA**

(1) The next "master of Greece" came from the North. Philip of Macedon, hostage pupil of Epaminondas at Thebes, won the favor of the Am-

phictyonic Council through his services against the Phocians; and, before Demosthenes could make the Greeks understand Philip's design against the liberties of Greece, he won the decisive battle of Chæronea, 338 B.C., with his "Macedonian Phalanx," thus making himself master of Greece. (2) "At a great council of the Grecian cities held at Corinth, Philip was chosen leader" of an expedition against the Persians. "All Greece was astir with preparation." An assassin slew Philip at his daughter's wedding. His son Alexander succeeded to his place and power, 336 B.C. After suppressing various revolts within his own domains, he crossed the Hellespont. Defeating the Persians at the Granicus and at Issus, he pushed on to Tyre, which he finally captured. After his visit to Egypt, where he founded Alexandria, he resumed his march towards the Persian capital. Having won the decisive battle of Arbela, 331 B.C., he sacked Babylon, Susa, and Persepolis, and then continued his marches. Returning from India, where he had captured the celebrated Porus, he established himself at Babylon, hoping to establish a world-empire. He died at the age of thirty-two, 323 B.C. (3) Among the many results of Alexander's conquests must be mentioned the civilizing effects upon Asia and the degenerating effect upon Europe. After the celebrated battle of Ipsus, 301 B.C., the vast empire of Alexander was divided between his four contending generals, Ptolemy get-

ting Egypt. Ptolemy established an empire with its seat at Alexandria, famous later on for its university, its light-house, and the Septuagint. Macedonia and Greece finally became parts of the world-empire of ancient Rome, 146 B.C. Greece suffered much at the hands of the Turks after 1453 A.D., but succeeded in securing her independence in 1828-29 through outside help. She has been at war with the Turks several times lately.

## CIVILIZATION

Beauty was the motive idea in the civilization of ancient Greece. The results are the world's surprise even in modern times.

## RELIGION

“Without at least some little knowledge of the religious ideas and institutions of the ancient Greeks, we should find very many passages of their history wholly unintelligible.” The cosmography of the early Greeks is of course very defective.

**Deities.** (1) The imaginative Greek mind, in its effort to explain natural phenomena, personified both the forces of nature and the passions of man into gods and goddesses. (2) Six gods and as many goddesses constituted the Olympian Council, at whose head stood Zeus. Besides the great gods and goddesses were many subordinate deities, prominent among which were the muses, nymphs,

fates, furies, gorgons, etc. Students of literature cannot get along very well without mastering Greek mythology pretty thoroughly. (3) With such defective conceptions, we need not be surprised that the faith, reverence, and morality of the ancient Greeks were so superficial.

**Oracles.** (1) The natural desire to communicate with their divinities, produced institutions known as Oracles, the most famous of which were at Delphi and Dodona. (2) In these sacred places ambiguous answers by the priests became powerful prophecies and counsels, and the Greeks undertook nothing of importance without first consulting the Oracles. (3) In spite of ingenious obscurity and ambiguity the deceptive character of the oracles finally wrought their ruin.

**Sacred Games.** (1) The Greeks, believing at first that the dead enjoyed festivals over their graves, and afterwards that such festivals, because they helped to beautify both body and mind, were pleasing to their gods and goddesses, instituted the renowned Olympian and other games. (2) The first Olympian game was held in 776 B.C., and then every four years. The exercises consisted of athletic contests, with prizes for the victors. In the Pythian, Isthmian, and Nemean games intellectual contests became popular. (3) Accordingly, "for more than a thousand years these national festivals exerted an immense influence upon the literary, social, and religious life of Hellas,"

giving the whole world its inspiration in sculpture, architecture, poetry, etc.

**Amphictyonic Council.** (1) "This was a league of twelve of the sub-tribes of Hellas, whose main object was the protection of the Temple of Apollo at Delphi." (2) "The so-called First Sacred War (600-590 B.C.) was a crusade of ten years carried on by the Amphictyons against the cities of Crissa and Cirrha for their robbery of the treasures of the Delphian temple." (3) "The spoils of the war were devoted to the establishment of musical contests in honor of the Delphian Apollo. Thus originated the renowned Pythian festivals, to which allusion has just been made."

### ARTS

Imagination conspired with religion to develop the Greeks, especially the Athenians, into artists.

**Architecture.** Pelasgian architecture deserves a passing notice. (1) The Greeks developed three styles of architecture. (2) The Doric style is best represented by its plain and stern pillar, the Ionic by its graceful volutes, and the Corinthian by its ornate capital. (3) Among the most renowned architectural triumphs of ancient Greece were the temples at Athens, Delphi, and Ephesus, the remains of which are still charmingly interesting. Nor ought we to forget the Theatre of Dionysus at Athens and the Mausoleum at Halicarnassus.



**Sculpture.** (1) The gymnastic art so highly developed through the inspiration of the Olympian games, produced the apparently forever inimitable Greek sculptors. (2) Phidias, easily the master of them all, is best known for his Athena and Zeus, Polycletus for his athlete "the Rule," Praxiteles for his Cnidian Aphrodite, and Lysippus for his heroes in bronze. Nor must we forget the Colossus at Rhodes and the Laocoön Group. (3) Famous museums have possession of these masterpieces.

**Painting.** (1) In Greece nature herself would stir the heart to express ideals in colors. (2) The masterpiece of Polygnotus is his Trojan Polyxena. Zeuxis painted grapes, and his rival Parrhasius curtains. Apelles, the "Raphael of Antiquity," painted horses that deceived real horses. (3) "With the exception of antique vases and a few patches of mural decoration, all specimens of Greek painting have perished."

### LITERATURE

"It was that same exquisite sense of fitness and proportion and beauty which made the Greek artists in marble that also made them artists in language."

**Poetry.** (1) Combined with religion, the beauty ideal of Greece produced poetry. (2) Among the best hero poems are Homer's "Iliad" and Hesiod's "Works and Days." Among the

lyric writers were Sappho, the Lesbian nightingale, and Pindar, the Theban Eagle. All of these deserve careful study. (3) The Homeric poems "exerted an incalculable influence upon the literary and religious life of the Hellenic race," and are studied as standard classics in our own colleges.

**Drama.** (1) Songs and dances instituted in honor of Dionysus produced both tragedy and comedy. (2) The masters in tragedy-writing were Æschylus, famous for his "Prometheus Bound," and his later rival Sophocles the beautiful, together with Euripides the human. Foremost among all writers of comedy must be placed Aristophanes. (3) Those masterpieces of Greek drama which are still in existence are studied as models and inspirations even to-day.

**History.** (1) Herodotus was "the father of history." (2) Among other things, Herodotus wrote the history of the Persian wars, Thucydides that of the Peloponnesian war, and Xenophon that of the Ten Thousand Greeks. (3) All these masterpieces deserve our study.

**Oratory.** (1) "The art of oratory among the Greeks was fostered and developed by the democratic character of their institutions." (2) The masters were the statesmen Themistocles and Pericles, together with the inimitable Demosthenes and his rival Æschines. (3) "Of all human productions," the orations of Demosthenes "present to

us the models which approach the nearest to perfection."

### ALEXANDRIAN AGE

Special interest attaches to the famous Septuagint of Alexandria, and Plutarch's equally famous "Parallel Lives."

### PHILOSOPHY

(1) The attempt to explain the phenomena of nature and mind systematically produced philosophers, or thinkers, in ancient Greece. (2) Among those who deserve our special attention is Pythagoras, the great teacher at Crotona. We ought also to make the acquaintance of the brilliant but shallow sophists. Socrates, the renowned critic of the sophists, is the Greek philosopher pre-eminent. After him come the founders of famous schools,—Plato, Aristotle, Zeno, Epicurus. Nor ought we to forget Pyrrho, Philo, Hypatia, Euclid, Archimedes, and Claudius Ptolemy. (3) The ideals of the Greek philosophers and thinkers have, of course, been modified by modern science, but in the main they constitute the basis and point of departure for all the systems of thought in all ages.

### EDUCATION

The ideals of Spartan and Athenian civilization produced opposite systems of education which had the most diverse world-results.

**CONCLUSION**

The student of general history should notice the peculiar position of woman in Greece, and he should have some idea of Greek amusements, occupations, and slavery.

References : (1) Myers ; (2) Duruy.

## THE ROMANS

THE student of Roman history should begin with a careful geographical comparison between Italy and Greece. The geographical distribution of the early inhabitants of Italy is also desirable.

### POLITICAL HISTORY

“Most important of all the Italian peoples were the Latins, who dwelt in Latium, between the Tiber and the Liris. These people, like all the Italians, were near kindred of the Greeks, and brought with them into Italy those same customs, manners, beliefs, and institutions which we have seen to have been the common possession of the various branches of the Aryan household.”

### ROME

The first important Latin city was Alba Longa. In 753 B.C., so far as we know, the new city of Rome was founded on the Tiber, as an outpost against the Etruscans. For several centuries Rome, with her social division into patricians, plebeians, etc., was governed by kings, reinforced by a senate and a popular assembly. “The legends of Rome tell of the reign of seven kings,—Romulus, the founder of Rome; Numa, the law-giver; Tullus Hostilius and Ancus Marcius, conquerors

both; Tarquinius Priscus, the great builder; Servius Tullius, the reorganizer of the government and second founder of the state; and Tarquinius Superbus, the haughty tyrant, whose oppressions led to the abolition by the people of the office of king." The growth of Rome under the Tarquins, and the various material and constitutional improvements which they made, deserve attention. In 509 B.C. the people drove Tarquinius Superbus into exile, because, as the legend runs, he was a monstrous tyrant.

### EARLY REPUBLIC

In the change of government attending the expulsion of Tarquinius Superbus Rome became a republic, with two patrician magistrates, called consuls. "In public each consul was attended by twelve servants, called lictors, each of which bore an axe bound in a bundle of rods (fasces), the symbols of the authority of the consul to flog and to put to death." "In time of great public danger the consuls were superseded by a special officer called a dictator." (See Cincinnatus.)

### SECESSION OF THE PLEBEIANS

(1) The political revolution which established the republic produced revolts, and troubles without brought trouble within. "The poor plebeians, to begin with, fell into debt to the wealthy class,—for the Roman soldier went to war at his own

charge, and payment was exacted with heartless severity." Their condition becoming intolerable, they marched away to found a new city. Redress of grievances and the granting of tribunes, or representatives, brought them back. The story of Coriolanus shows what power the plebeian tribunes had in this early republic of Rome. (2) "In all struggles of the people against the tyranny of the ruling class, the demand for written laws is one of the first measures taken by the people for the protection of their persons and property. The same thing now took place at Rome." A committee of ten men, called decemvirs, drew up a code of laws, known as the "Laws of the Twelve Tables." (3) While engaged on this code of laws the decemvirs also administered the government, thus superseding both consuls and tribunes, but when, in the second year of their labors, they began to play the tyrant the plebeians again seceded to Mons Sacer. Through the contention which followed the plebeians secured military tribunes, a compromise which brought them back to Rome. In the year 351 B.C. the plebeians also secured the office of censor. (4) In 390 B.C., six years after the significant siege and capture of the rival Etruscan city, Veii, the Gauls sacked Rome. Tradition tells how Manlius, who was afterwards condemned to death for alleged treason, saved Rome's citadel. The important thing in this connection is that the plebeians, through the conten-

tions that followed the sack of Rome, finally, in 367 B.C., through the efforts of Licinius, a tribune, obtained political equality with the patricians. Besides providing against oppressive usury, the Licinian laws gave the plebeians one of the two consuls, a Sibylline priest, and land rights.

### WAR OF PYRRHUS

After the Samnite wars, of which the student should know at least something, the next important thing in the history of the republic of Rome is the conquest of lower Italy, at that time in the hands of the Greeks. The city of Tarentum, provoking Rome into war, sent for Pyrrhus, the cousin of Alexander the Great and King of Epirus. His battles and final defeat are thrillingly interesting. Thus it was that Rome finally became mistress of all Italy.

### THE PUNIC WARS

(1) With the Romans, as with the Persians, the supreme end in view was the "state,"—its enlargement by war and its government under law. Hardly, therefore, had Rome become the mistress of all Italy when she began to covet Sicily, then occupied on the east by Greeks, and elsewhere by Phoenician Carthaginians. On the pretext of helping some friends, a Roman army was landed on the island. Thus began the First Punic War. (2) Although Carthage, well governed and rich in resources, made a desperate effort, in conjunc-



tion with their old enemies, the Greeks, to save Sicily, she was no match for Rome in this first onset. After their victories on the island, the Romans built a fleet (260 B.C.), defeated the Carthaginians at Mylæ, and, under Regulus, sailed for Carthage. Regulus was defeated, but advised Rome to continue the war. After the loss of two more fleets, the Romans won a decisive victory over Admiral Hanno, near the Ægatian islands. (3) Thus ended the first of three struggles between Rome and Carthage for world-empire, the former, besides other advantages, gaining Sicily, her first foreign province.

Rome settled the affairs of Sicily, added Sardinia and Corsica, punished the Illyrian corsairs, and, almost annihilating an army of Gauls at Telamon, "extended their authority to the foot-hills of the Alps." In spite of the calamity of their defeat and the "Truceless War," the Carthaginians, through the genius of Hamilcar Barcas, the father of the still more famous Hannibal, established an empire in Spain. Meanwhile, both parties were eager to renew the contest. (1) Hannibal attacked Saguntum, a city on the East coast of Spain but under Roman protection. The demands of Rome were refused. Thus began the Second Punic War. (2) Hannibal crossed the Alps, defeated the Romans in famous battles, as at the river Trebia, lake Trasimenus, and, after much delay on the part of the Roman Fabius, at

Cannæ. The leader of the Numidian cavalry, Maharbal, wanted to capture Rome, but Hannibal hesitated and wintered in Capua. After punishing Syracuse and Capua for aiding Carthage, and defeating Hannibal's brother Hasdrubal at the Metaurus, the Romans sent Scipio into Africa. Hannibal, who, in spite of great odds against him, had kept his enemies at bay in rocky Bruttium, was now recalled to save Carthage. The armies met at Zama, and Hannibal lost the battle. Thus ended the war, and thus began the end of Hannibal. (3) One of the conditions of peace was that Carthage should "not engage in any war without the consent of Rome."

The battles of Cynoscephalæ and Pydna gave the Romans control of Macedonia. Through their victories at Magnesia they gained Asia Minor. The destruction of Corinth ended the conflict with Greece, 146 B.C. (1) In the mean time, Carthage, in violation of her treaty with Rome, had been provoked into war with Masinissa, King of Numidia. Cato, who had been sent to Carthage to look into these quarrels, seeing that Rome could never hope to be the undisturbed mistress of the Mediterranean and her shores so long as Carthage existed, urgently advised the destruction of the city. (2) After shameful perfidy on the part of Rome, another Scipio was sent to destroy Carthage. He succeeded (146 B.C.) in spite of almost superhuman defences. Thus ended the Punic wars, and,

after the siege of Numantia, in Spain, Rome was finally "mistress of all the lands that touch the sea."

### RESULTS OF WARS OF CONQUESTS

"We shall here learn that wars for spoils and dominion are in the end more ruinous, if possible, to the conqueror than to the conquered."

**Servile Wars in Sicily.** (1) Rome usually sold her war-captives into servitude. The conditions of the slaves in Sicily were particularly hard. Therefore they revolted. (2) The insurrection was one of large proportions, and lasted for three years, when (3) peace was restored. A similar war broke out some years later, with similar results.

**Public Lands.** (1) "Upon the subjugation of a state Rome never left to the conquered people more than two-thirds of their lands." "The land appropriated was disposed of at public sale, leased at low rentals, allotted to discharged soldiers, or allowed to lie unused." "In various ways the greater part of the public lands had fallen into the hands of the wealthy." "Through the working of the public land system, the Roman people had become divided into two great classes." (2) Many measures were attempted in the interest of relief. "The most noted champions of the cause of the poorer classes against the rich and powerful were Tiberius and Caius Gracchi." (3) Tiberius "secured the passage of a law for the redistribu-

tion of the public lands, which gave some relief." The part which he took in resulting election quarrels cost him his life. Caius "secured the passage of grain laws, which provided that grain should be sold to the poor from public granaries at half its value or less. This was a very unwise and pernicious measure." "Caius proposed other measures in the interest of the people," and, in the collision with the Optimates which followed, rather than be killed, he "sought death by a friendly sword." The people ever regarded the Gracchi as martyrs to their cause, and their memory was preserved by statues in the public square. To Cornelia, their mother, a monument was erected, simply bearing the inscription, "The Mother of the Gracchi."

**Jugurtha.** (1) "After the death of the Gracchi, Italy again fell into the hands of a few over-rich land-owners." (2) Roman virtue and integrity had declined since Fabricius indignantly refused the gold of Pyrrhus. The story of Jugurtha, King of Numidia, illustrates the depth to which Rome had sunk in venality. (3) It may be a satisfaction to know that after his capture by the consul Marius, he finally perished in the Mamertine dungeon.

**Cimbri and Teutones.** (1) "The Teutones and Cimbri, the vanguard of that great German migration which was destined to change the face and history of Europe," were coming across the

Alps to seek new homes. (2) "Marius, the conqueror of Jugurtha, was looked to by all as the only man who could save the state in this crisis."

(3) In a terrible battle near Marseilles the Teutones were almost annihilated, and a similar fate overtook the Cimbri almost immediately at Vercellæ. Marius had become the "Saviour of his Country."

**Social War.** (1) The barbarian invasion was followed by a social quarrel, sometimes called the Marsic war. It was a struggle of the Italian allies for Roman citizenship. (2) The Italians flew to arms, determined to establish a rival state. "A town called Corfinium, among the Apennines, was chosen as the capital of the new republic, and its name changed to Italica. Thus, in a single day, almost all Italy south of the Rubicon was lost to Rome." Aristocrats and democrats hushed their quarrels and fought side by side for the endangered life of the republic. The war lasted three years. (3) Finally, the right of suffrage was offered "to all Italians who should lay down their arms within sixty days." Thus virtually ended a most disastrous war.

**Marius and Sulla.** (1) "The Social War was not yet ended when a formidable enemy appeared in the East. Mithridates the Great, King of Pontus, taking advantage of the distracted condition of the republic, had encroached upon the Roman provinces in Asia Minor, and had caused

a general massacre of the Italian traders and residents in that country.” (2) After a civil struggle with the famous Marius, his rival in the struggle was sent to punish Mithridates. “After driving the army of Mithridates out of Greece, Sulla crossed the Hellespont, and forced the king to sue for peace.” (3) In the mean time, however, Marius, who had returned from exile, had filled Rome with the blood of Sulla’s party. Soon after the death of Marius from dissipation Sulla returned, and the most horrible proscriptions followed. Among the Marian party spared by Sulla was Julius Cæsar, then a young man of eighteen years of age. We shall hear more of him by and by. “After enjoying the unlimited power of an Asiatic despot for three years, he [Sulla] suddenly resigned the dictatorship, and retired to his villa at Puteoli, where he gave himself up to the grossest of dissipations.” He died the following year.

**Gladiators.** While Pompey, “a rising young leader of the oligarchy, upon whom the title of Great had already been conferred as a reward for crushing the Marian party in Sicily and Africa, was sent into Spain to perform a similar service there, a new danger broke out in the midst of Italy.” (1) “Capua was a sort of training school, from which skilled fighters were hired out for public or private entertainments. In this seminary was a Thracian slave, known by the name of Spartacus, who incited his companions to revolt.” (2)

Collecting in great numbers, they cut Roman armies to pieces, and defied Rome for about three years. Finally, Spartacus himself was slain, and the insurgents were crushed. (3) The terrible punishments that followed, warned Roman slaves against striking for freedom.

**Pirates.** After the prosecution of the corrupt Verres by "Cicero, the brilliant orator, who was at this time just rising into prominence at Rome," Rome had to deal with the Pirates of the Mediterranean. (1) Various causes conspired to fill the sea with pirates. (2) "They formed a floating empire, which Michelet calls a wandering Carthage, which no one knew where to seize, and which floated from Spain to Asia." "These buccaneers, the vikings of the South, made descents upon the coast everywhere, plundered villas and temples, attacked and captured cities, and sold the inhabitants as slaves in the various slave-markets of the world. At last the grain-ships of Sicily and Africa were intercepted," and Rome began to stir herself. (3) Pompey, the conqueror of Spain, cleared the pirates from the seas in about ninety days, and thus not only acquired high honors for himself but served Rome well.

**Mithridates.** (1) "In the very year that Pompey suppressed the pirates, he was called upon to undertake a more difficult task." "Mithridates the Great, led on by his ambition and encouraged by the discontent created throughout the Eastern

provinces by Roman rapacity and misrule was again in arms against Rome." (2) Almost all Asia Minor was in revolt. (3) Pompey defeated Mithridates in Armenia. After vain efforts to raise a new army against Rome, Mithridates, moved by the revolt of his own son, committed suicide. One of Rome's most formidable enemies was out of the way. Pompey returned to Rome in great triumph.

### FIRST ROMAN TRIUMVIRATE

(1) The conspiracy of Cataline, a ruined spendthrift, reveals the state of the republic. The government was saved by Cicero. In the meantime, however, the ambition of the three most famous Romans produced a coalition known as the First Triumvirate. (2) Julius Cæsar, the soul of the conspiracy, secured the consulship through the aid of his colleagues, the rich Crassus and the popular Pompey. While Cæsar and Pompey were bidding for the favor of the people, Crassus was slain in Parthia. When, through Pompey's influence, the Senate required Cæsar to "resign his office and disband his Gallic legions by a stated day," he crossed the Rubicon, and Pompey fled to Greece. After pacifying Italy Cæsar followed Pompey and defeated him at Pharsalus in Thessaly. Following the fleeing Pompey to Egypt, where Pompey was assassinated, Cæsar secured the throne of Egypt to the beautiful Cleopatra. Hearing of the revolt



of Pharnaces in Asia Minor, he hastened thither and defeated him at Zela. After returning to Rome, Cæsar had to go to Africa, where he defeated the friends of the old republic in the great battle of Thapsus. (3) He was now the undisputed master of the Roman world. Great as a general, Cæsar was even greater as a statesman. But the friends of the old republic, together with his bitter personal enemies, led by Brutus and Cassius, murdered him on the 15th day of March, 44 B.C. Thus ended the First Triumvirate.

### SECOND ROMAN TRIUMVIRATE

(1) After the funeral of Cæsar, in which his eloquent friend Mark Antony figured so prominently, ambition produced a second triumvirate. Its immediate causes were the pretensions of Antony and the ambitions of "Caius Octavius, the grand-nephew of Julius Cæsar, and the one whom he had named in his will as his heir and successor." After several indecisive battles, Octavius compromised with Antony and Lepidus, thus forming a second triumvirate, the conditions of which were simply infamous. The great orator Cicero was one of the victims. (2) The first task of the triumvirate was to meet the army of Brutus and Cassius, who still posed as friends of the old republic. The hostile armies met at Philippi in Thrace. "In two successive engagements the new levies of the liberators were cut to pieces, and both

Brutus and Cassius, believing the cause of the people forever lost, committed suicide." "After various redistributions of the provinces, Lepidus was at length expelled from the triumvirate, and then again the Roman world, as in the times of Cæsar and Pompey, was in the hands of two masters,—Antony in the East and Octavius in the West." "After the battle of Philippi, Antony summoned Cleopatra, the fair queen of Egypt, to meet him at Tarsus, there to give an account to him for the aid she had rendered the liberators." Enslaved by her enchantments, and worried by the Parthians, he hastened to Egypt to revel in the courts of Cleopatra. Here he plotted against Rome. The matter was finally settled by the great sea-fight just off the promontory of Actium, on the Grecian coast, 31 B.C. Octavius won, and Cleopatra, followed by Antony, fled into Egypt, where both ended their own lives. Thus ended the Second Triumvirate. (3) Octavius became the second master of the Roman world.

### ROMAN EMPIRE

"The hundred years of strife which ended with the battle of Actium left the Roman republic, exhausted and helpless, in the hands of one wise and strong enough to remould its crumbling fragments in such a manner that the state, which seemed ready to fall to pieces, might prolong its existence for another five hundred years."

**Augustus.** Octavius, the second of the so-called "Twelve Cæsars," surnamed "Augustus," because of the grandeur of his reign, established "a monarchy in fact, but a republic in form." "Never did a people seem more content with the shadow after the loss of the substance." "The domains over which Augustus held sway were imperial in magnitude." "Octavius was the first to moderate the ambition of the Romans, and to counsel them not to attempt to conquer any more of the world, but rather to devote their energies to the work of consolidating the domains already acquired. He saw the dangers that would attend any further extension of the boundaries of the state." Reigning forty-four years, from 31 B.C. to 14 A.D., he was a great patron of literature and art. This was the age of Mæcenas, Virgil, Horace, and Ovid. As a rule, the reign of Augustus was one of peace, but his latter years were clouded with sorrows, the most important one being the loss of his legions in Germany, where the great Arminius had annihilated Varus and his Roman army. To the German race this victory over the Romans was of immeasurable importance. One of the many institutions of Augustus was the creation of the Prætorian Guard, a sort of body-guard for the emperor. We shall hear of this body again.

**Tiberius.** Tiberius, a stepson of Augustus, succeeded to an unlimited sovereignty. His reign

was generally successful, but his private life, especially that portion which he spent on the island of Capri, was a blot on humanity. The infamous Sejanus ruled Rome for Tiberius.

**Caligula.** Caligula, a nephew of Tiberius, began well, but his reign of four years was a career of insane vices and cruelties.

**Claudius.** Claudius, the grandson of Tiberius, conquered the Britons under Caractacus and founded many colonies in the southern part of England. Among the many improvements for which he is noted must be named the Portus Romanus, a magnificent harbor, and the Claudian aqueduct, bringing water to the city from a distance of forty-five miles. He was finally poisoned by his wife Agrippina, to make her son Nero emperor.

**Nero.** For five years Nero, the son of the wicked Agrippina, "ruled with moderation and equity," but, breaking away from the guidance of his tutor, the famous Seneca, he plunged into incredible enormities, including the murder of his mother, wife, and Seneca. In order to remove the suspicion from himself he blamed the Christians for the great fire which laid more than half of Rome in ashes. An immense palace which Nero built upon the burnt region is known as the "Golden House." The history student ought to read "*Quo Vadis*" to get a picturesque description of Nero's times.

**Galba.** A revolt of the Prætorian Guard at Rome was Galba's stepping-stone to the throne, but breaking faith with them cost him both his life and his throne.

**Otho.** Coming to the throne by conspiracy against Galba, Otho, in turn, was overthrown by the generals of Vitellius.

**Vitellius.** Vitellius, a favorite of Tiberius, Caligula, Claudius, and Nero, like his two predecessors, gained and lost his throne through army revolts.

**Vespasian.** Having hurled Vitellius from his throne, the soldiers of Vespasian made their old and beloved commander emperor. His son Titus captured Jerusalem and destroyed the Jewish temple. Agricola, a general of Vespasian, extended the Roman empire to Scotland. Besides other important undertakings, Vespasian began the erection of the Roman Colosseum.

**Titus.** Vespasian was followed by his noble son Titus, the "Delight of Mankind." He completed the Colosseum, an immense amphitheatre. A calamitous fire and the destructive eruption of Vesuvius marred the otherwise prosperous, though brief, reign of Titus.

**Domitian.** Domitian, the brother of Titus, persecuted both the Christians and the Jews. His reign was "one succession of extravagances, tyrannies, confiscations, and murders." "The last of the twelve Cæsars perished in his own palace,

and by the hands of members of his own household."

**Nerva.** The first of the "Five Good Emperors," Nerva, was elected by the Senate. His reign of sixteen months, like that of four successors, was wise and beneficent.

**Trajan.** Trajan was a native of Spain and a soldier by profession. "To Trajan belongs the distinction of extending the boundaries of the empire to the most distant points to which Roman ambition and prowess were ever able to push them." A tall marble shaft which he erected celebrates his victories and honors his artistic tastes. He was also a patron of literature. "Juvenal, Plutarch, and the younger Pliny wrote under his patronage." "Because the Christians," whose spread was very rapid at this time, "steadily refused to sacrifice to the Roman gods, he ordered many to be put to death." All things considered, "his reign was one of the most prosperous and fortunate that had yet befallen the lot of the Roman people."

**Hadrian.** "Hadrian, a kinsman of Trajan, succeeded him in the imperial office." "He gave up the territory conquered by Trajan in the East, and made the Euphrates once more the boundary of the empire in that quarter." "More than fifteen years of his reign were spent by Hadrian in making tours of inspection through all the different provinces of the empire." The Jews, who

had revolted, were terribly punished by Hadrian. "An immense structure surmounted by a gilded dome," and known as Hadrian's Mausoleum, is one of this princely builder's splendid architectural achievements.

**Aurelius Pius.** The adopted son of Hadrian "gave the Roman empire an administration singularly pure and parental." The reign of this first of the two Antonines was one of profound peace.

**Marcus Aurelius.** Marcus Aurelius, the adopted son of Aurelius Pius, was a Stoic philosopher. "His 'Meditations' breathe the tenderest sentiments of devotion and benevolence, and make the nearest approach to the spirit of Christianity of all the writings of Pagan antiquity." He loved peace, but revolts forced him to spend most of his latter years in camp. Returning from a victory over the revolting Parthians, his soldiers brought with them the Asiatic plague. The Christians of the Roman empire were blamed for this plague. A fearful persecution was the result. Among the famous victims were Justyn Martyr and Polycarp. In the midst of pestilence and persecution, the Northern barbarians began to pour impetuously over the Roman frontiers. For many years Aurelius strove to drive them back, and, though he succeeded in checking their inroads, he could not avert the final overthrow of Rome.

**Commodus.** Commodus, the son of Aurelius, was a "most unworthy successor. He ruled with

fairness and lenity for a few years, when an unsuccessful conspiracy against his life seemed suddenly to kindle all the slumbering passions of a Nero."

**Caracalla.** For nearly a century after the death of Commodus (from 192 to 284 A.D.) the emperors were elected by the army, and hence the rulers for this period have been called the "Barrack Emperors." The character of the period is revealed by the fact that of the twenty-five emperors who mounted the throne during this time, all except four came to their deaths by violence. "Civil war, pestilence, bankruptcy, were all brooding over the empire. The soldiers had forgotten how to fight, the rulers how to govern. On every side the barbarians were breaking into the empire to rob, to murder, and to burn." Didius Julianus was the first of the Barrack Emperors. He bought the throne from the Prætorian Guard for about twelve million dollars. Septimius Severus came next. His son, Caracalla, who followed, was a monster. The one political act of importance of his reign was the bestowal of citizenship upon all the free inhabitants of the empire. This act of Caracalla was prompted by the desire to collect certain special taxes, but it made the entire population of the empire Roman, at least in name and nominal privilege.

**Aurelian.** An age of weakness, known as the "Age of the Thirty Tyrants," was redeemed



somewhat from its shadows by five good emperors, the second of which was Aurelian. This emperor is best remembered for his capture of the beautiful Zenobia, queen of Palmyra, a city occupying an oasis in the midst of the Syrian desert. The story is particularly interesting.

**Diocletian.** “The reign of Diocletian makes an important era in Roman history. In order to divide the numerous and increasing cares of his distracted empire, he chose an associate emperor, with an assistant for himself and one for his co-sovereign.” “Thus there were two Augusti and two Cæsars.” Diocletian himself lived at Nicomedia in Asia Minor, the other Augustus at Milan in Italy. The most serious drawback of this system of government was the necessity of heavy taxes. “It was during this reign that the tenth—the last and severest—of the persecutions of the church took place.”

**Constantine the Great.** The Roman army in Britain proclaimed Constantine emperor, 306 A.D. He was the first Christian emperor, best remembered in connection with the famous Nicene Council, 325 A.D. The ungracious conduct of the people of Rome, among other reasons, induced him to make Byzantium on the Bosphorus his capital. The name was changed to Constantinople.

**Julian the Apostate.** After the brief reign of Constantine’s son Constantius, a cousin of the

latter, Julian by name, became the emperor. He is called the "Apostate," because he abandoned Christianity. A renewal of the Neronian and Diocletian persecutions had, however, become impossible. "Julian's weapons were sophistry and ridicule." "The disabilities under which Julian had placed the Christians were removed by his successor Jovian."

**Valens.** Jovian's successor was Valentinian, the commander of his imperial guard. He appointed his brother Valens as his associate, the former fixing his capital at Milan, where he was soon succeeded by Gratian, his son. In 376 A.D., the first year of Gratian's accession, "an event of the greatest importance occurred in the East." It was the crossing of the Danube by the Visigoths, Valens giving them permission on certain conditions. Shortly after this imprudent permission of Valens the Ostrogoths forced their way across and slew him in battle, but Theodosius, the great general whom Gratian had sent to help Valens, conquered and settled the Goths in Asia Minor and Thrace.

### BARBARIAN INVASIONS

The last days of the empire in the West had come. "Only a few years had elapsed after the death of the great Theodosius before the barbarians were trooping in vast hordes through all the regions of the West." (1) Alaric, the Visigoth, came first. Stilicho, the renowned general of Ho-

norius, defeated him and forced him beyond the Alps. Radagaisus came next, but he, too, was defeated by the mighty Stilicho. A massacre of the Gothic mercenaries in the Roman army brought Alaric across the Alps to avenge the fate of his kindred. Honorius, in the mean time, had caused Stilicho to be assassinated. There was no one to stop Alaric now. He sacked Rome, and then led his soldiers southward on a plundering tour. Death overtaking him, his followers returned northward, finally setting up the kingdom of the Visigoths in Gaul and Spain. (2) Attila, the Hun, was the next barbaric invader of Italy. After working great havoc, this "Scourge of God" was finally defeated upon the plains of Chalons, in Gaul. Attila succeeded in escaping across the Rhine. The year after his defeat he crossed the Alps again, and, after burning or plundering all the important cities of Northern Italy, he threatened Rome. It was saved by Pope Leo the Great. Crossing the Danube, and dying soon afterwards, "his followers gradually withdrew from Europe into the wilds of their native Scythia." (3) Finally came Genseric the Vandal. "The kings of the Vandal Empire in Northern Africa had acquired as perfect a supremacy in the Western Mediterranean as Carthage ever enjoyed in the days of her commercial pride." It was in the year 455 A.D. that a Vandal fleet, led by the dread Genseric, sailed up the Tiber. Panic seized the people of

Rome. The petitions of the pious Leo again mitigated the terrors of Rome's sufferings, but he could not save the city from sack. "The cruel fate of Carthage might have been read again in the pillaged city that the Vandals left behind them."

**Fall of Rome.** "Only the shadow of the Western Empire now remained. All the provinces—Illyricum, Gaul, Britain, Spain, and Africa—were in the hands of the Goths, the Vandals, the Franks, the Burgundians, the Angles and Saxons, and various other intruding tribes." The prestige of Rome was gone, and finally Italy became "in effect a province of the Empire in the East, 476 A.D. The Empire of the West had fallen."

**Rome of the Middle Ages.** In 493 A.D. Theodoric set up in Italy a new dominion, known as the Kingdom of the Ostrogoths. They were conquered by the generals of Justinian. (See Myers, page 371.) In the year 568 A.D. (see Myers, page 374) the Lombards conquered almost all Italy, and set up a kingdom which lasted nearly two centuries. In the year 800 A.D. Charlemagne (see Myers, page 406) restored the holy Roman empire, receiving the crown from Pope Leo III. The Treaty of Verdun (see Myers, page 408) separated Italy from Germany and France. This separation was the origin of modern Italy.

**ROMAN EMPIRE IN THE EAST**

“During the fifty years immediately following the fall of Rome, the Eastern Emperors struggled hard (see Myers, page 389) to withstand the waves of the barbarian inundation which constantly threatened to overwhelm Constantinople with the same awful calamities that had befallen the imperial city of the West.”

**Justinian.** “Fortunately, in the year 527, there ascended the throne a prince of ability.” This was Justinian, whose great general Belisarius and his famous lawyer Tribonian made his reign glorious and prosperous.

**Heraclius.** About fifty years later another great prince, Heraclius, ruled at Constantinople. (See Myers, page 390.) It was he who almost annihilated the Persians near by the place of the Assyrian Nineveh, but Heraclius was unable to save Jerusalem from the Saracens. Henceforth the Roman element becomes subordinate to the Greek. The capture of Constantinople by the Turks, 1453 A.D., finally closed “the long and checkered history of the Græco-Roman empire in the East.”

**CIVILIZATION**

In their civilization the Romans rose highest as conquerors and organizers, but also made respectable attainments in literature, oratory, and philosophy.

**RELIGION**

(1) "The basis of the Roman religious system was the same as that of the Grecian; the germs of its institutions were brought from the same early Aryan home." (2) "At the head of the Pantheon stood Jupiter, identical in all essential attributes with the Hellenic Zeus. To him, together with Juno and Minerva, was consecrated, as we have already noticed, a magnificent temple upon the summit of the Capitoline Hill, overlooking the Forum of the city." Other important Roman divinities were Mars, the war god, Janus, "the god of the beginning and end of everything," Vesta, together with the Lares and Penates, the household divinities. The Romans, like the Greeks, believed in oracles and divination, and had a system of priests known as sacred colleges with which the history student should be quite familiar. Then, too, the Romans held sacred games, chiefly those of the circus. "These festivals, as in the case of those of the Greeks, had their origin in the belief that the gods delighted in the exhibition of feats of skill, strength, or endurance; that their anger might be appeased by such spectacles; or that they might be persuaded by the promise of games to lend aid to mortals in great emergencies." The Romans also made uses of these games. (3) "Towards the close of the republic these games lost much of their religious character, and at last

became degraded into mere brutal shows given by ambitious leaders for the purpose of winning popularity."

### ARCHITECTURE

(1) The Romans "not only modified the architectural forms they borrowed, but they gave their structures a distinct character by the prominent use of the arch, which the Greek and Oriental builders seldom employed, though they were acquainted with its properties." (2) Among their sacred edifices the most famous one was the Pantheon, remains of which still exist. The Colosseum deserves our special attention. We ought also have definite ideas about Roman aqueducts, baths, triumphal arches, bridges, harbors, roads, etc. (3) Among the most famous remains of Roman architecture are the Claudian Aqueduct, the Arch of Titus, the Pantheon, and the Colosseum. The Roman Forum is an interesting place for tourists even in our day.

### LITERATURE

(1) Latin literature was a reproduction of Greek models. (2) Among the famous writers of the old republic were the dramatists Plautus and Terence, together with Lucilius the satirist and Lucretius the evolutionist. "Four names have cast an unfading lustre over the period covered by the reign of Augustus,—Virgil, Horace, Ovid, and Livy. So distinguished have these writers ren-

dered the age in which they lived, that any period of a people's literature marked by unusual literary taste and refinement is called, in allusion to the Roman era, an *Augustan Age*." "Persius and Juvenal, who lived and wrote during the last half of the first and the beginning of the second century of our era," were famous satirists whose masterpieces give us faithful pictures of the selfishness, immorality, and vice that characterized the age of Caligula, Nero, and Domitian." (3) Most of these Roman writers are studied in our schools and colleges to-day.

### ORATORY

(1) "Public oratory is the child of political freedom, and cannot exist without it." So it was at Rome. (2) "Roman oratory was senatorial, popular, or judicial." The best representatives are the eloquent advocate Hortensius and Cicero the accuser of Catiline. (3) Cicero's orations are almost as popular to-day as when they were first penned.

### HISTORY

(1) The achievements of ancient Rome as a conqueror produced four great historians. (2) Cæsar's Commentaries, Sallust's Conspiracy of Catiline, Livy's Annals, and the Germania of Tacitus are worth our study, and (3) have held a place in our colleges up to our times.



**PHILOSOPHY**

(1) The leisure of imperial Rome, together with the stimulus of Greek thought, produced several great Roman thinkers. (2) The best Roman thinkers probably were Seneca, Pliny the younger, Marcus Aurelius, and Epictetus, all deserving our attention. (3) Some of the writings of these authors have been spared.

**CHURCH WRITERS**

(1) When the Latin tongue began to be more generally used throughout the Roman provinces, Christian writers began to use it in their compositions. This was particularly true of the last two centuries of the empire. (2) St. Jerome's translation of the Scriptures into Latin and St. Augustine's "City of God" are both wonderful achievements, and (3) they will always hold high rank in religious circles.

**LAW**

(1) The genius of ancient Rome was essentially military and juristic. (2) The systematic works of Tribonian, Justinian's great lawyer, resemble the laws of the Greek decemvirs, but reach far beyond them in grasp of situations and political judgment. (3) "The body of the Roman law thus preserved and transmitted was the great contribution of the Latin intellect to civilization."

Roman law, modified of course by Christianity, still rules the world.

### **SOCIETY**

(1) With the ancient Romans the "state" was the controlling influence not only in the education of the youth, but in the position of woman, the character of amusements, and the institution of slavery. (2) The history student should master the essential features of all of these. (3) Degeneracy in the Roman home-life, the brutality of gladiatorial combats, free corn, and slavery were the prominent causes in the moral fall of ancient Rome.

References : (1) Myers ; (2) Duruy.

THE MIDDLE AGES



## THE MIDDLE AGES

THE centuries between the fall of Rome (476 A.D.) and the capture of Constantinople by the Turks (1453 A.D.) are commonly known as the Middle Ages. We may divide them into two periods. (1) The dark ages, or the period following the fall of Rome, comes first. This catastrophe, so destructive to intellectual possibilities, was the origin of modern peoples, languages, and institutions. (2) The Age of Revival began with the opening of the eleventh century. It was a period of advances, and, in the fifteenth century, one of improvements, inventions, and discoveries. "The Crusades, or Holy Wars, were the most remarkable undertakings of the age."

Before entering upon a study of the Middle Ages it is necessary to make "an analysis of the elements of civilization (see Myers, page 368), and to notice the position of the Celts, Slavonians, and other peoples that began to count for something in the history of the Middle Ages."

### TEUTONIC KINGDOMS

The Ostrogoths settled in Italy, the Visigoths in Spain, the Vandals in Africa, the Franks in France; the Lombards crowded upon the Ostrogoths in Italy; the Anglo-Saxons set up kingdoms

in Britain. Among the very interesting characters in this connection is Clovis, king of the Franks, who tore away from Rome in the battle of Soissons, 486 A.D., and became a Christian ten years later in a battle with the Germanic Alemanni. The first remarkable Anglo-Saxon king was Egbert, the founder of a long line of kings. (See Myers, page 375.)

### CONVERSIONS OF BARBARIANS

“The most important event in the history of the tribes that took possession of the Roman empire in the West was their conversion to Christianity.” Ulfilas and Valens figure largely in the conversion of the Goths, Clovis in that of the Franks, St. Augustine in that of the Anglo-Saxons, St. Patrick in that of the Celts, and St. Boniface in that of the Germans. Among the important crises in the early Christianity of Britain was Oswy’s Council at Whitby, 664 A.D. “By the opening of the fourteenth century all Europe was claimed by Christianity, save a limited district in Southern Spain held by the Moors, and another in the Baltic regions possessed by the still pagan Finns and Lapps.” (See also the foot-note of Myers, page 382.)

**Monasticism.** (1) “The long conflict of the Christian Church with the barbarians whom it finally converted produced monasticism, a remarkable system of seclusion from the world, with the

object of promoting the interests of the soul." (2)

(The hermits and monks lived a very ascetic, self-denying life.) The three essential vows of the monks were those of poverty, chastity, and obedience, forbidding, respectively, the acquirement of property, the marriage of monks, and the dominance of the state over the church. The Order of the Benedictines was probably the most famous fraternity. (3) The advantages of monasticism were manifold. It reduced church work to system, and through its discipline it produced most effective missionaries, through whose zeal Europe was united by conversion in time to save it from the horrors of a Saracenic conquest. Among the more important intellectual results of monasticism was the preservation of learning through the Middle Ages.

### ROMANCE NATIONS

(1) The gradual fusion of the conquerors and the conquered within the geographical domains of the Romans produced the so-called Romance nations. (2) The Ostrogoths and Lombards settling in Italy became the modern Italians, the Franks and Burgundians the modern French, and the Visigoths the modern Spaniards. They gradually spoke a modified Latin, in which, nevertheless, the Latin greatly predominated over the Teutonic admixtures, so that even to this day these languages are known as the Romance languages. In the same way these nations became Romance

Christians, and, after Justinian's reign, they gradually substituted the Roman laws of Tribonian's collection for the peculiar Teutonic methods called *ordeals*. (3) The results have become established elements of civilization wherever the Romance nations made their homes.

### MOHAMMEDANS

“The Arabs, or Saracens, who are now about to play their surprising part in history, are, after the Hebrews, the most important people of the Semitic race.” “Before the reforms of Mohammed, the Arabs were idolaters. Their holy city was Mecca.” In those days Arabia was a land of religious freedom even for the Jews and the Christians.

**Mohammed.** Mohammed was born at Mecca, 570 A.D. “Like Moses, he spent many years of his life as a shepherd.” Possessed of a deeply religious nature, he employed his leisure in reflection and meditations, thus becoming a reformer. His first convert was his wife. Opposition to his teachings caused him to flee to Medina. This flight is known as the Hegira. He succeeded in raising an army, and conquered the whole of Arabia to his faith, dying 632 A.D.

**Caliphs.** The Caliphs, or successors of Mohammed, pursuing his policy of conquest, hoped to carry the doctrines of the Koran into Europe. Driven back from Constantinople after their con-



quest of Syria and Persia, they turned down into Egypt and Northern Africa, finally crossing the strait into Spain. In 732 A.D. they were checked at Tours, in France, by Charles Martel. The geographical isolation of the parts of this crescent empire produced several famous capitals and a final dismemberment of the Caliphate. The power passed rapidly from the hands of the Arabs to the Turks, and then to the Moors.

**Civilization of the Mohammedans.** At Bagdad, the Arabian capital, literature and science flourished. The "Arabian Nights" belongs to this period. The Moors were famous builders. The palace of the Alhambra is brought to our attention in Washington Irving's "Alhambra." There were fine institutions of learning and extensive libraries to be found, especially at Cordova, Toledo, and Bagdad. In spite of the serious defects of Islam, Mohammedanism has accomplished wonders, not only in its earliest centuries of conquests, but also from its Turkish centre of dominion, Constantinople.

### FRANKS

The Franks first came into prominence, as we have seen (Myers, page 373), through the Merovingian king Clovis. The successors of Clovis were unable to keep the throne. "Charles Martel, whose tremendous blows at Tours earned for him his significant surname, although the real head of the nation, was nominally only an officer of the

Merovingian court. He died without ever having borne the title of king, notwithstanding he had exercised all the authority of that office." By the sanction of the Pope, Charles Martel's son, Pepin, became the king of the Franks, thus founding the second or Carolingian line. "Quick to return the favor which the head of the church had rendered him in the establishment of his power as king, Pepin straightway crossed the Alps with a large army, expelled the Lombards from their recent conquests, and made a donation to the Pope of these captured cities and provinces, 755 A.D." This gift laid the basis of the temporal power of the Popes.

**Charlemagne.** Charles, the son of Pepin, made fifty-two military campaigns, chief among them those against the Lombards, the Saracens, and the Saxons. The first of these campaigns gave him the iron crown of Lombardy, the next is famous for the death of Roland, and the last for the hero opposition of Witikind, the "second Arminius." In the year 800 A.D., for various reasons, Leo III. crowned Charles with the golden crown of Rome, thus restoring, as has been stated, the holy Roman empire in the West. His conquests, together with his promotion of religion, government, and education, gave Charles the title Charlemagne, Charles the Great. He laid "the foundation of all that is noble and beautiful and useful in the history of the Middle Ages."

**Verdun.** "Like the kingdom of Alexander, the mighty empire of Charlemagne fell to pieces soon after his death." After a troublous period of dissension and war, the empire was divided by the important Treaty of Verdun (843 A.D.) among Charlemagne's three grandsons. In some sense this celebrated treaty was the origin of the great nations of Italy, France, and Germany, whose first kings thus sprang from the Carlovingian stock.

### NORSEMEN

The Norsemen, the Northern branch of the Teutonic family, in possession of the Scandinavian peninsula probably before Cæsar's invasion of Gaul, were hidden from our view the first eight centuries of our era, "but with the opening of the ninth century their black piratical crafts are to be seen creeping along all the coasts of Germany, Gaul, and the British isles, and even venturing far up their inlets and creeks." "After a time the bold corsairs began to winter in the lands they had harried during the summer; and soon all the shores of the countries visited were dotted with their stations or settlements." It was a second European inundation of Teutonic barbarians. "They laid aside their own manners, habits, ideas, and institutions, and adopted those of the country in which they established themselves. In Russia they became Russians; in France, Frenchmen; in England, Englishmen." Among our most inter-

esting literary memorials of early Teutonic peoples are poems and legends called eddas, by Norse bards in Iceland. The Scandinavian chieftain Ruric founded the first royal line of Russia, 862 A.D. After years of struggle with the Anglo-Saxons "the Danes got the mastery, and Canute, king of Denmark, became king of England (1016)." The Anglo-Saxons regained the English throne, 1042 A.D. In the year 918 A.D. Rollo, the leader of the Northmen that had settled at Rouen in France, obtained, upon conditions of homage and conversion, a large section of country in the northern part of France. This district soon began to be called Normandy, and its settlers, Normans.

### THE POPES OF THE MIDDLE AGES

During the Middle Ages "the Christian Church grew into a great spiritual monarchy, with the bishop of Rome as its head." (1) In its early organization the Christian Church was governed from four centres,—Rome, Constantinople, Alexandria, and Antioch. A number of circumstances combined to make the bishop of Rome bishop of bishops, or Pope. Among the causes that led to this primacy of the bishop of Rome was the spell of Rome's imperial prestige. Even the removal of the seat of government from Rome to Constantinople, in 476, helped the Roman pontiff, for it left him the most important personage at Rome. The success with which Leo the Great prevailed upon

the invading Attila and Genseric to spare the city or the lives of the inhabitants, when emperors, the natural defenders, had failed to protect the city, was an immense gain for the Roman bishop's prestige. Rome early became the mother of many churches all over Europe, and these daughters would naturally look upon the bishop of Rome with veneration. The iconoclastic controversy, an eighth century dispute between the East and the West about the worship of images, vastly improved the power of the Roman pontiff, because, although the East was lost, he gained great political power through Charlemagne's friendship. In various ways, accordingly, by the end of the twelfth century, "the Pope came to be regarded as the fountain of justice, and, in theory at least, the supreme judge of Christendom, while emperors and kings and all civil magistrates bore the sword simply as his ministers to carry into effect his sentences and decrees." In short, although the claim of the Guelphs, or adherents of the Pope, was much disputed by the Ghibellines or adherents of the emperors, the popes, for several centuries of the Middle Ages, had virtually become both world priests and world kings. (2) The supremacy of the papacy (see Myers, page 452) is illustrated by the contest between Hildebrand and Henry IV. of Germany. On becoming Pope in 1073, he undertook to enforce celibacy among the secular clergy and to suppress simony. The attempt to suppress

simony interfered with the feudal homage which the state had thus far required from the church. Henry refused to accede to the Pope's decrees, and had him deposed, but was in turn excommunicated by the Pope, vastly to the distress of Henry, who set out for Canossa to accomplish a tardy reconciliation. Hildebrand was finally exiled to Salerno, where he died; but the quarrel ended in disaster for Henry. About a century later Pope Innocent III. was able to compel Philip Augustus, a very powerful king of France, to take back his divorced wife, and to force King John of England to accede to his wishes in the choice of a bishop for the See of Canterbury. The authority of the Popes immediately succeeding Innocent III. were "powerfully supported by the monastic orders of the Dominicans and Franciscans," the begging friars or monks that came into existence early in the thirteenth century. (3) The decline of the papal supremacy began through the removal of the papal chair from Rome to Avignon, in France, by Philip the Fair, 1309. "The discontent awakened among the Italians by the situation of the papal court at length led to an open rupture between them and the French party." Then came rival popes, which caused the Councils of Pisa and Constance to convene, but, although these councils deposed both popes and once more united the Catholic world in Martin V., "the temporal rulers of France, Germany, and England successively revolted, and

freed themselves from the authority of the papacy as touching political or governmental affairs." Nevertheless kings still continued to assist the popes against heresies and schisms.

### FEUDALISM

(1) In the century following the division of Charlemagne's empire by the Treaty of Verdun the Norse invaders of Europe, on settling down, portioned out conquered country among their retainers or sub-chiefs. Thus arose a military tenure of lands, together with the government of such lands, which, from the name feuds, or estates, came to be called *feudalism*. (2) In order to get a satisfactory mental photograph of the feudal system the history student must distinguish carefully between *feudal lords, investiture, and suzerainty*, on the one hand, and *feudal vassals, homage, escheat, forfeiture, and aids*, on the other hand. Besides these distinctions those of freemen, serfs, and slaves are necessary to complete the conception of feudal society. Then, finally, to get the picturesque and military view of feudal times, the student must have a pretty full knowledge of feudal castles, meals, armies, hunts, etc. (3) In consequence of the protection which this system afforded in an age of commotions and violence, all classes of society, including kings, princes, and wealthy persons, and even allodial owners of land, churches, etc., hastened to become vassals of feudalism.

Various causes, and among them especially its inherent defects and the Holy Wars, or Crusades, led to the decay of feudalism, or its conversion into chivalry.

### CHIVALRY

(1) Chivalry, "the flower of feudalism," was a refinement of feudalism through its moral contact with the church. (2) Its special features come into prominent view through a study of the four vows of chivalry,—namely, to speak the truth, defend the right, honor woman, and raise the sword against the infidel. In order to prepare the candidates for knighthood, and to live the life of chivalry as required by its vows, courses in fine etiquette, polite literature, physical culture, military service, etc., were offered. This training began in boyhood and ended with the attainment of manhood. Among the most interesting features of chivalry were the famous tournaments, or military festivals,—something like the sacred games of the Greeks. (3) Chivalry declined with feudalism, and for the same reasons, but not until it had helped to make the woman of the Middle Ages "a queen of love and beauty," and not until it had served as the most powerful agency in the Crusades. The system, somewhat modified, was brought from France into England by William of Normandy, who, by winning the battle of Hastings (1066 A.D.), became the king of England. (See Myers, pages 433-437.)



**CRUSADES**

(1) The Crusades, or Holy Wars, beginning 1096 A.D., were caused primarily by the insults and persecution of Christian pilgrims to the Holy City Jerusalem, which, in the eleventh century, had fallen into the hands of the Seljukian Turks. Peter the Hermit and Pope Urban were the instrumental causes. (2) The first of these great military expeditions, under the leadership of Godfrey of Bouillon, captured Jerusalem and established the Latin kingdom of Jerusalem. The subsequent formation of fraternities, such as the Knights Templars, is very interesting. The second crusade, caused by the preaching of St. Bernard, and in charge of the emperor of Germany and the king of France, was wasted in Asia Minor. The third crusade is famous for the siege of Acre, the death of Frederick Barbarossa, the spleen of Philip Augustus, and the pathetic surrender of the project by Richard the Lion-hearted after a treaty with the renowned Saladin. The fourth crusade captured Constantinople. Then followed the pitiful crusade by the children. The fifth and seventh crusades, conducted into Egypt by Louis IX. of France, cost him his life. The sixth crusade, conducted by Frederick II., is known as the "Peace Crusade." The first four crusades are known as the Major Crusades, the last four as Minor Crusades. (3) These holy wars cost "several millions

of lives, besides incalculable expenditures and sufferings," and contributed powerfully to the downfall of feudalism. At the same time they promoted commerce, enlarged the power of kings and popes, and enriched European universities through the addition of the Saracenic sciences.

### **TURANIANS OF THE MIDDLE AGES**

(1) The Magyars, a branch of the Hunnic race, established the kingdom of Hungary in the ninth century, and in time became thoroughly Europeanized. (2) The Seljukian Turks, so called from the name of one of their chiefs, captured Jerusalem, and, by their intolerance and aggression, caused the Crusades. (3) The Mongols overran and conquered the whole of Asia, under their renowned cavalry leaders, Genghis Khan and Tamerlane, the two following each other at the distance of about two centuries. (4) Under Amurath I. (1360-1389) the Ottoman Turks, an offshoot of the Seljukians, got possession of a large part of the country known as Turkey in Europe. His son Bajazet defeated the combined forces of Hungary, Germany, and France, on the fatal field of Nicopolis, in Bulgaria (1396). Instead of stabling his horse in the Cathedral of St. Peter, at Rome, and capturing Constantinople, as he threatened, he had to meet the Turks and Mongols on the plains of Angora, in Asia Minor, where he suffered a disastrous defeat at the hands of Tamerlane. In 1453

Mohammed II. captured Constantinople. "The cross, which since the time of Constantine the Great had surmounted the dome of St. Sophia, was replaced by the crescent, which remains to this day." The Ottoman Turks are gradually "being pushed out from their European possessions, and the time is probably not very far distant when they will be driven back across the Bosphorus, as their Moorish brethren were expelled long ago from the opposite corner of the continent by the Christian chivalry of Spain."

#### CITY REPUBLICS OF THE MIDDLE AGES

(1) "As the cities, through their manufactures and trade, were the most wealthy members of the Feudal System, the lords naturally looked to them for money when in need. Their exactions at last became unendurable, and a long struggle broke out between them and the burghers, which resulted in what is known as the enfranchisement of the towns." In the eleventh and twelfth centuries most of the towns of Western Europe obtained charters from their lords. Under the protection of their charters they increased in wealth and population until at last they became strong enough to effect their independence. Thus were formed the city republics, or commonwealths, of Italy and Germany. (2) "Towards the close of the thirteenth century Northern and Central Italy was divided among about two hundred contentious little city

republics. Italy had become another Greece." Before the close of the fourteenth century nearly all these quarrelling city commonwealths had been converted into oligarchies or principalities. Foremost among the Italian city republics were those of Venice, with its Doge, Genoa, the commercial rival of Venice, and Florence, the home of the wonderful reformer Savonarola and Michael Angelo, the Medici, etc. In the eleventh and twelfth centuries the towns of Northern Germany began to extend their commercial connections into Italy. Fearing the robber nobles who lay in wait along the routes, some of the German cities in the fourteenth century formed the Hanseatic League. This Hansa, or League, established a protective system of trading-posts and became a great monopoly. Various causes, and among them especially the disarrangement of old routes of trade, together with increasing governmental security, finally, in the seventeenth century, led to the dissolution of the league. "The chartered towns and free cities of the mediæval era exerted a vast influence upon the commercial, social, artistic, and political development of Europe."

#### THE NATIONS OF THE MIDDLE AGES

"The most important movement that marked the latter part of the Middle Ages was the grouping, in several of the countries of Europe, of the petty feudal states and half-independent cities and

towns into great nations with strong centralized governments. This movement was accompanied by, or consisted in, the decline of Feudalism as a governmental system, the loss by the cities of their freedom, and the growth of the power of the kings." (See Myers, page 478.) "This rise of Monarchy and decline of Feudalism, this substitution of strong centralized governments in place of the feeble, irregular, and conflicting authorities of the feudal nobles, was a very great gain to the cause of law and good order. It paved the way for modern progress and civilization."

**England.** The Plantagenet kings, who followed the Norman conquerors, lorded it over the common people of England. (1) In 1215 the feudal barons, taking up the quarrel, forced King John at Runnymede to grant the Magna Charta, a charter of rights. It contains fundamental provisions regarding life, liberty, property, taxes, etc., and, though often violated, this charta "must always be considered the most important concession that a freedom-loving people ever wrung from a tyrannical sovereign." (2) In 1265 Henry III., John's son and successor, "violated his oath to rule according to the Great Charter." "The indignant barons rose in revolt" again, and, defeating the king at Lewes, forced him to issue "writs of summons to the nobles and bishops to meet in parliament." Similar writs to the sheriffs of the different shires directed them "to return two knights

for the body of their county, with two citizens or burghers for every city and borough contained in it." Thus was born the House of Commons. (3) Edward I., who came to the throne in 1272, wanted Wales, and got it by slaying Llewellyn, thus forever extinguishing the independence of Wales. (4) Edward I. also contrived to make himself the feudal overlord of Scotland, with John Balliol as his vassal. This feudal allegiance became galling to the Scots, and Balliol cast it off. War followed, and Balliol perished. The famous William Wallace, who took up the cause of Scotland, was also undone by Edward I. But finally Robert Bruce the Younger defeated Edward II. at Bannockburn, 1314, thus, in effect at least, gaining an independence from England which lasted until 1603, when James Stuart VI. of Scotland became James I. of England. (5) France had helped Scotland in her struggles for independence. This caused the Hundred Years' War between England and France. It was something like the Peloponnesian War. Its principal engagements were the battles of Crecy (1436), Poitiers, and Agincourt, the latter leading to the treaty of Troyes, which, because it was unsatisfactory to the French, caused the siege of Orleans, under the inspiration of Joan of Arc, the Maid of Orleans. The English were defeated, and the Dauphin Charles, in whose interest Joan of Arc had fought, was crowned as Charles VII. (1429). The fate of the Maid of Orleans is very pathetic.

(6) The final result of the Hundred Years' War was a shameful contest between the feudal Houses of York and Lancaster. It is known as the war of the roses, and, after thirty years, came to an end with the battle of Bosworth, 1485. This victory ended feudalism in England and made it a monarchy, with the victor Henry Tudor as Henry VII.

**France.** "The kingdom of France begins properly with the accession of the first of the Capetian rulers, late in the tenth century, for the Merovingian and Carolingian kings were simply German princes reigning in Gaul." "The Capetians held the throne for more than three centuries, when they were followed by the Valois kings." "Our aim will be to give prominence to those matters which concern the gradual consolidation of the French monarchy." (1) After the battle of Hastings (1066) William the Conqueror of England still continued to be a vassal of France for his possessions there. "As was inevitable, a feeling of intense jealousy sprang up between the two sovereigns. The French king was ever watching for some pretext upon which he might deprive his rival of his possessions in France. The opportunity came when King John, in 1199, succeeded Richard the Lion-hearted upon the English throne. That odious tyrant was accused, and doubtless justly, of having murdered his nephew Arthur. Philip Augustus, who then held the French throne, as John's

superior, ordered him to clear himself of the charge before his French peers. John refusing to do so, Philip declared forfeited all the lands he held as fiefs" in France. (2) The Crusades, in which three French kings took part, tended to weaken the feudal nobility and, in a corresponding degree, to strengthen the authority of the crown. The crusade against the Albigenses, a religious sect of Southern France, is particularly interesting. (3) "The event of the greatest significance in the Capetian age was the admission (1302), in the reign of Philip the Fair, of the commons to the feudal assembly, or council, of the king. This transaction is in French history what the first summoning of the House of Commons is in English." This joint body of the nobles, bishops, and burghers became known as the States General, and the admission of the burghers vastly strengthened the king. (4) "By the successive shocks of Crecy, Poitiers, and Agincourt," the famous battles of the Hundred Years' War, "the French feudal aristocracy, which was already tottering through the undermining influence of the crusades," was almost completely prostrated before Charles VII. (5) The final blow at French feudalism was the conquest of Charles the Bold, the feudal lord of Burgundy, by the French king Louis XI. That the French monarchy had now absorbed all the feudal estates of France may be seen from the fact that when Charles VIII. invaded Italy he had paid



troops instead of feudal retainers. This happened at the close of the fifteenth century.

**Spain.** (1) "When, in the eighth century, the Saracens swept like a wave over Spain, the mountains of Asturia, in the northwest corner of the peninsula, afforded a refuge for the most resolute Christian chiefs who refused to submit their necks to the Moslem yoke." (2) The work of reconquest soon began, and, furthered by Charlemagne's conquest of the Moors in Northern Spain, the Christians gradually but surely recovered themselves. The Christian states of Castile and Aragon became prominent in the eleventh century. In 1479 the sovereigns of these states formed a union. (3) In 1492 they conquered Granada, the last stronghold of the Moorish power in Spain. "The Moors, or Moriscoes, as they were called, were allowed to remain in the country and to retain their Mohammedan worship, though under many annoying restrictions." This conquest of the Moors "advanced Spain to the first rank among the nations of Europe, and gave her arms a prestige that secured for her position, influence, and deference long after the decline of her power had commenced." "Ferdinand greatly advanced his power by the active and tyrannical use of the Inquisition, a court that had been established by the church for the purpose of detecting and punishing heresy."

**Germany.** (1) "The history of Germany as a separate kingdom begins with the break-up of

the empire of Charlemagne." (2) "While the kings of England, France, and Spain were gradually consolidating their dominions, and building up strong centralized monarchies on the ruins of feudalism, the sovereigns of Germany, neglecting the affairs of their own kingdom, were allowing it to become split up into a vast number of virtually independent states, the ambitions and jealousies of whose rulers were to postpone the unification of Germany for four or five hundred years—until our own day." (3) "In 962, just a little more than a century and a half after the coronation at Rome of Charlemagne as emperor," Otto the Great, the second of the Saxon kings of Germany, was crowned Emperor of the Romans. (4) The Hohenstaufen emperors of Germany, best represented by Frederick Barbarossa, of the third crusade, built famous cathedrals like those at Strasburg and Cologne, but ruined their house by quarrelling with the popes. "The most noteworthy matters in German history during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries are the struggles between the Swiss and the dukes of Austria, the religious movement of the Hussites, and the growing power of the House of Austria." In these connections the legend of William Tell, and the Council of Constance, are of special interest to history students. (5) In the year 1438, Albert, Duke of Austria, was raised to the imperial throne. Albert's accession through Electors, a body of four princes and three bishops,

was a sort of compromise with feudalism, and marks an epoch in German history. "The greatest of the Hapsburg [Austrian] line during the mediæval period was Maximilian I. (1493-1519). His reign is in every way a noteworthy one in German history, marking, as it does, a strong tendency to centralization and the material enhancement of the Imperial authority."

**Russia.** (1) "About the middle of the ninth century the Swedish adventurer Rurik laid, among the Slavonian tribes dwelling eastward from the Baltic, the foundation of what was destined to become one of the leading powers of Europe. The state came to be known as Russia." (2) The Tartar, or Mongol, conquest of the thirteenth century was a Russian calamity, placing a heavy yoke upon the country for two hundred years. (3) "It was not until the reign of Ivan the Great (1462-1505) that Russia,—now frequently called Muscovy from the fact that it had been reorganized with Moscow as a centre,—after a terrible struggle, succeeded in freeing itself from the hateful Tartar domination, and began to assume the character of a well-consolidated monarchy."

**Italy.** (1) "In marked contrast to all those countries of which we have thus far spoken, unless we except Germany, Italy came to the close of the Middle Ages without a national or regular government. This is to be attributed in large part to that unfortunate rivalry between pope and em-

peror which resulted in dividing Italy into the two hostile camps of Guelph and Ghibelline." (2) The most noteworthy movements in the direction of political union for Italy were the ill-fated attempts of Rienzi, Tribune of Rome, 1347, the Renaissance, or Revival of Learning, of which we shall speak presently, and the wonderful politico-religious reformer the Florentine Savonarola.

**Northern Countries.** (1) "The great Scandinavian Exodus of the ninth and tenth centuries drained the Northern lands of some of the best elements of their population." For this and other reasons these countries did not play a prominent part in the history of the Middle Ages. (2) The Union of Calmar, under Margaret of Denmark, was the only event of political importance (1397). (3) "The Swedes arose again and again in revolt, and finally, under the lead of a nobleman named Gustavus Vasa, made good their independence (1523)." Norway eventually became a province of Denmark, and it "remained attached to the Danish Crown until the present century."

#### FORMATION OF NATIONAL LITERATURES

The so-called Dawn centuries, the later centuries of the Middle Ages, were pre-eminently the birth periods of national literatures. Writers no longer confined themselves to the use of Latin. On the contrary, they began to be able to express themselves in their mother-tongue,—*i.e.*, in the lan-

guage of their own lands. Thus arose literature in England, Germany, France, Spain, Italy, Iceland, etc. (1) "Holding a position high above all other writers of early English is Geoffrey Chaucer (1328), the Father of English Poetry. His greatest work is his 'Canterbury Tales.'" "Foremost among the reformers and religious writers of the period under review was Wycliffe, the Morning Star of the Reformation." The followers of Wycliffe became known as "Lollards." (2) In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries France produced the Troubadours and the Trouveurs, lyric and epic writers of rare charms. The first really noted prose writer in French literature was Froissart (1337-1410), the interesting annalist of the Hundred Years' War. (3) "Castilian, or Spanish, literature begins in the twelfth century with the romance-poem of the 'Cid' (that is, *Chief*, the title of the hero of the poem), one of the great literary productions of the mediæval period." (4) "It was under the patronage of the Hohenstaufen that Germany produced the first pieces of a national literature. The 'Song of the Niebelungen' is the great German mediæval epic." It is a recast of German and Scandinavian legends. "The hero of the story is Siegfried, the Achilles of Teutonic legend and song." "Under the same emperors, during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, the Minnesingers, or lyric poets, flourished. They were the 'Troubadours of Germany.' For the most part, refined

and tender and chivalrous and pure, the songs of these poets tended to soften the manners and lift the hearts of the German people."

**Iceland.** After its settlement by the Teutonic Norsemen in the ninth century, arose the Sagas, or legends, of the Northern races. Orally transmitted to the twelfth century, they were then embodied into the celebrated eddas, which "reflect faithfully the beliefs, manners, and customs of the Norsemen, and the wild, adventurous spirit of their sea-kings."

#### REVIVAL OF LEARNING

After the languor and depression of the first mediæval centuries Europe had an intellectual awakening of remarkable proportions. (1) In the most general sense, this awakening, or Revival of Learning, began through Charlemagne's Cathedral schools, where the so-called seven liberal arts—grammar, rhetoric, logic, arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, and singing—were taught in connection with religion. (2) This system of training, meant more especially for the priests, developed into "a form of philosophy called, from the place of its origin, scholasticism, while its expounders were known as school-men. It was a fusion of Christianity and Aristotelian logic." Among the most famous school-men were Duns Scotus, Thomas Aquinas, Albertus Magnus, and Abelard. (3) In the thirteenth century the Cathedral schools were

expanded into universities, as at Paris, Bologna, and Salerno. This enlargement of the Cathedral schools into universities was due largely to the popularity of the school-men. The scientific spirit awakened in the Saracenic schools, as in Spain, where Christian students attended, also contributed to the same result. The Cathedral course was enlarged so as to embrace medicine, theology, law, and philosophy. (4) "About the beginning of the fourteenth century there sprung up in Italy a great enthusiasm for Greek and Latin literature and art. This is generally known as the Italian Renaissance, or the New Birth." "The intellectual and literary phase of this movement is called Humanism, and the promoters of it are known as Humanists,—*i.e.*, students of the *humanities*, or polite literature." "The real originator of the humanistic movement was Petrarch," an Italian lover of Greek literature. With him must be associated the Italian poets Dante and Boccaccio, and the Greek Chrysoloras. Humanism was greatly promoted after 1453 by Greek exiles from captured Constantinople. Such popes as Nicholas V., founder of the Vatican library, and Leo X., the patron of artists, received these exiles, so to say, with open arms. Under the auspices of their patrons the Humanists collected and translated manuscripts, founded libraries, etc. The passion of Italian Humanism was fatal to Italian Christianity. In Germany and England, whither the

movement spread, it produced the Reformation through the Humanistic study of the Bible. Gutenberg's printing-press no doubt contributed to this more excellent result of Humanism in Germany. (5) The Renaissance, added to the overthrow of feudalism and the establishment of monarchies, virtually closed the Middle Ages.

References : (1) Myers ; (2) Duruy.



THE MODERN AGES



## THE MODERN AGES

THE great events that form the prelude to modern history are the discovery of the new world by Columbus, Vasco da Gama's discovery of a water-path to India, Magellan's voyage around the globe by way of the strait that bears his name, the conquest of Mexico by Cortez, and that of Peru by Pizarro, together with the Spanish colonization of the new world. To save the Indians, negroes were introduced as a substitute for native laborers in the Spanish colonies. It was the act of the gentle Las Casas, the "Apostle of the Indians." American slavery was the final issue.

# THE AGE OF RELIGIOUS REVOLTS

THE revolt of Northern Europe from the spiritual jurisdiction of Rome, covering the sixteenth and the first half of the seventeenth century, is the momentous beginning of Modern Ages.

## GERMANY

(1) Among the causes leading up to the Reformation in Germany must be named the great mental awakening of the Renaissance period. Then, too, the invention of printing powerfully aided religious discussion. Earnest and spiritually minded men also found fault with certain abuses in the church and questioned the right of popes to share in the internal governmental affairs of a nation. The immediate cause was the controversy which arose about indulgences. Martin Luther, an Augustine monk, and a teacher of theology in the university of Wittenberg, terribly incensed by Tetzel's sale of indulgences, finally (1517) "drew up ninety-five theses, or articles, wherein he fearlessly stated his views respecting indulgences." "These theses, written in Latin, he nailed to the door of the church at Wittenberg, and invited all scholars to examine and criticise them, and to point

out if in any respect they were opposed to the teachings of the word of God, or the early fathers of the church. By means of the press the theses were scattered with incredible rapidity throughout every country in Europe." (2) "The continent was now plunged into a perfect tumult of controversy." Luther burned the bull which Pope Leo X. had sent to Wittenberg. He was, accordingly, summoned to Worms for trial. Although pronounced a heretic, he was allowed to depart in safety. His friends carried him to Wartburg, where he began his translation of the Bible into German. Before the year had passed he was called to Wittenberg by the troubles of the Peasants' War. The doctrines of Luther gained ground very rapidly. The matter was considered by a diet at Spires. Protesting against the action of the diet, the reformers from this time began to be known as *Protestants*. The next year (1530) a diet was convened at Augsburg by Charles V. On this occasion the Protestants offered a statement of faith, since known as the Augsburg Confession. Fearing Charles V., who was just then at war with Solyman the Turk, the Protestants formed a protective association known as the Smalcald League. War with Charles followed. It is known as the Smalcald war, and ended in a compromise known as the Peace of Augsburg (1555). (3) In the meantime several causes conspired to check Protestantism. "Chief among them were the divisions

among the Protestants, the Catholic counter-reform, the increased activity of the Inquisition, and the rise of the Order of Jesuits." All these checks deserve our careful study. Notwithstanding these checks, other nations followed Germany in her revolt from Rome until the Pope had lost both temporal and spiritual jurisdiction over one-half of Western Christendom.

### SPAIN

(1) In 1519 the King of Spain, already the recipient of four hereditary crowns, became Emperor of Germany under the title of Charles V.

**Charles V.** "The young emperor placed himself at the head of the Catholic party, and during his reign employed the strength and resources of his empire in repressing the heresy of the reformers." (2) "Fortunately for the cause of the reformers, Charles's attention, during all the first part of his reign, was drawn away from the serious consideration of church questions by the attacks upon his dominions of two of the most powerful monarchs of the times,—Francis I. (1515-1547), of France, and Solyman the Magnificent (1520-1566), Sultan of Turkey." Francis was Charles's rival for imperial honors, and, sorely disappointed because the Electors of Germany gave the crown to his rival, he worried him with four wars, which, for a quarter of a century, "kept nearly all Europe in a perfect turmoil." During these quarrels the

Sultan Solyman not only helped Francis at times, but crept right into the heart of Europe, with most calamitous results to the Christians. When peace came, Francis crushed the Waldenses of Southern France, a Protestant movement that had acquired considerable proportions, and Charles turned his attention to the reformers in Germany. (3) Finally, in 1556, the year after his Augsburg compromise, chagrined to find that he could not effect his purposes *in toto*, he abdicated. During his reign, ending as it did in gloom, Spain had remained untouched by the Reformation.

**Philip II.** (1) "With the abdication of Charles V. the Imperial crown passed out of the Spanish line of the House of Hapsburg. Yet the dominions of Philip were scarcely less extensive than those over which his father had ruled." (2) The reign of Philip II., like that of his father, was remarkable for war and unrest. He at once resumed his father's quarrel with France, repressed the Moors in Spain with terrible severity, and tried with all the vindictive vehemence of his crafty nature to crush the Reformation in the Netherlands, one of his hereditary provinces. In 1571 "Philip rendered an eminent service to civilization in helping to stay the progress of the Turks in the Mediterranean." All Christendom had become alarmed at Turkish aggression. An immense fleet, with Philip's half-brother, Don Juan of Austria, in command, almost totally defeated the Ottoman

fleet in the gulf of Lepanto, on the western coast of Greece. The Ottoman Turks never recovered from this blow to their power. "In 1588 Philip made his memorable attempt with the so-called 'Invincible Armada' upon England, at this time a stronghold of Protestantism. As we shall see a little later, he failed utterly in the undertaking."

(3) "Ten years after this he died in the palace of the Escorial," having successfully kept the Reformation out of Spain. "With his death closed that splendid era of Spanish history which began with the discovery of the New World by Columbus. From that time forward the nation steadily declined in power, reputation, and influence." The calamitous expulsion of the Moors from Spain by Philip II. (1598-1621) was followed by the revolt of the Netherlands in 1609. In 1639 Spain lost Portugal. In 1819 she had to cede Florida to the United States. Finally, in 1898, she lost Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines to the United States. To the young King Alfonso XIII. (1902) only the shadow of Spain's former magnificence has come as his kingdom.

### ENGLAND

In 1485, as we have seen, Henry Tudor became Henry VII. of England. The reign of the Tudors covered practically the sixteenth century. "It was under the Tudors that England was severed from the spiritual empire of Rome and Protestantism



firmly established in the island." "The soil in England was, in a considerable measure, prepared for the seed of the Reformation by the labors of the Humanists,—Colet, Erasmus, and More. Wycliffe's followers, the Lollards, also paved the way."

**Henry VII.** The reign of Henry VII., interesting as it may be on account of the *Benevolences*, or gifts, which he extorted from the rich, and also on account of the maritime discoveries by the Cabots, must really be regarded as the birth-period of the Reformation in England. In the course of the ambitious foreign matrimonial alliances which Henry made for his children, the Spanish Catharine of Aragon became the wife, first of his son Arthur and then of Arthur's brother Henry.

**Henry VIII.** When England, with the rest of Christendom, was stirred by Luther's theses, Henry defended Rome. Presently Henry wanted a divorce from Catharine. The Pope refused to grant it, and Wolsey, the great chancellor of Henry, did not seem to exert himself much in his sovereign's desire. Wolsey was, accordingly, banished from the court, and Thomas Cromwell, a man of great power, became Wolsey's successor. This wonderful Cardinal counselled Henry to break away from Rome, "proclaim himself supreme head of the church in England, and then get a divorce from his own courts." Henry carried out Cromwell's suggestions to the letter, adding

proscriptions and persecutions of his own invention. In effect, at least, he had made himself the founder of the present Church of England.

**Edward VI.** By the will which Parliament directed Henry VIII. to make, in order to settle the question of succession which the king had complicated by his marriages and divorces, his son Edward became Edward VI. "As Edward was but a child of nine years, the government was intrusted to a board of regents made up of both Protestants and Catholics." The Protestants, usurping the authority of the body, took charge of the king's education, and promoted Protestantism in various ways. The period is notable for the publication of the English Book of Common Prayer prepared by Archbishop Cranmer, and the well-known Forty-two Articles of Religion, practically an English version of the famous Augsburg Confession. In order to enforce the adoption of these sweeping changes the Catholics were terribly persecuted.

**Mary.** Notwithstanding an effort to place Lady Jane Grey upon the English throne, Edward's sister Mary, a devout Catholic, succeeded him, as the will of Henry VIII., their father, required it. Her rival was eventually brought to the block. Mary, in accordance with the spirit of the times, labored with axe, sword, and fagot to exterminate heresy. Philip II., whom Mary had married, coaxed her into war with France.

“The result of England’s participation in the war was her mortifying loss of Calais. It broke her heart.”

**Elizabeth.** The last of the Tudor sovereigns was Elizabeth, the daughter of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn. Like her father, she was very diplomatic, choosing her ministers with remarkable sagacity. Like her sister Mary, she had a rival for the throne, the beautiful Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots, whose pathetic career finally ended on the block. Elizabeth, siding with the Protestants, promoted the interests of the Reformation through two parliamentary acts,—the Act of Supremacy and the Act of Uniformity,—and she bitterly persecuted all non-conformists. The signal defeat of the Invincible Armada, sent to punish Elizabeth for the execution of Mary Stuart, finally removed from England all fear of further annoyance from Catholic Spain. Thus, in addition to triumphs in maritime and colonial enterprises, as well as the literary triumphs of Shakespeare, Bacon, etc., the reign of Elizabeth had fully established the English Reformation.

#### NETHERLANDS

(1) “Although Charles V. could not prevent the growth of Protestantism in Germany, he resolved to root out the heresy from his hereditary possessions of the Netherlands. These lowlands, the delta accumulations of North Sea rivers, geographically comprising what is now occupied by the

kingdoms of Holland and Belgium, contained, at the time of Charles's accession, a crowded and busy population of more than three million souls." The sufferings which he inflicted on his subjects are simply indescribable, "but when Charles returned to the monastery at Yuste (see Myers, page 534), the reformed doctrines were, notwithstanding all his efforts, far more widely spread and deeply rooted in the Netherlands than when he entered upon their extirpation by fire and sword." (2) Philip II., who, as we remember, obtained the crown of Charles V. by the latter's abdication in 1555, tried, if anything, harder than his father to root out heresy in the Netherlands. (3) Four years after Philip's coronation he set sail for Spain, never to return. His sister Margaret, Duchess of Parma, whom he had appointed regent, went on persecuting the Protestants with renewed bitterness. The nobles of the Netherlands, to whom, on presenting a petition of grievances, the term "beggars" had been derisively applied, finally determined to get satisfaction at any cost. "The pent-up indignation of the people at length burst forth in an uncontrollable fury." The insurgent mobs which arose, hating the inquisition under which they suffered, went about despoiling churches and monasteries. These mobs are known as iconoclasts, or image-breakers. (4) "The image-breaking riots threw Philip into a perfect transport of rage." He sent to the Netherlands a veteran Spanish army,

headed by the Duke of Alva, one of the ablest generals of his age. Those who could do so hastened to get out of the country. The eyes of all Netherlanders were now turned to William the Silent, Prince of Orange, who had begun to gather an army of volunteers for the struggle which he saw was inevitable. He coped ably with all the generals that Philip could send against him. After the "Spanish Fury" the Prince of Orange was able to unite the seventeen provinces against Spain. The union is known as the Pacification of Ghent (1576). The success of Don Juan, who had been sent to take Alva's place, caused the Pacification to break up. Once more William succeeded in forming the seven provinces of Holland into a union, known as the Union of Utrecht (1579). Philip II., seeing only the Prince of Orange in the way of his success, pronounced a "ban" against him, which, after the latter's defiant "apology," soon bore fruit. An assassin did the work. (5) "Prince Maurice, a youth of seventeen years, the second son of William, was chosen Stadtholder in his place, and proved himself a worthy son of the great chief and patriot." Queen Elizabeth of England, alarmed by the assassination of the Prince of Orange, now "openly espoused the cause of the Dutch." Among the English knights who led the British forces into the Netherlands was the gallant Sir Philip Sydney, the "Flower of Chivalry." France also took the side of the Dutch.

Finally, when Europe had grown weary of the struggle, Spain, by the treaty of 1609 and later by that of Westphalia (1648), acknowledged the independence of the Netherlands. Not only had the reformers won the fight in the Netherlands, but, in spite of the struggle, the country had developed in many other ways.

### FRANCE

(1) "There appeared in the University of Paris and elsewhere in France men who, from their study of the Scriptures, had come to entertain opinions very like those of the German reformer, so that the land which had been the home of the Albigenses was again filled with heretics." The religious uprising of Germany gave this French movement a special impulse. The persecutions of Protestant subjects by Francis I. and his son Henry II. finally helped to produce those long and woful civil-religious wars which wasted France all through the reigns of Henry's feeble sons, Francis, Charles, and Henry. (2) The contending parties in this sixteenth century civil-religious controversy of France were the Huguenots on the Protestant side, and the Guises on the side of the Catholics. The redoubtable Admiral Coligny and the notorious Catherine de Medici were probably the most significant characters in the struggle. The conspiracy of Amboise, a Huguenot plot to wrest the government from the hands of the Guises and to get possession of the

boy-king Francis II., was revealed to the Guises. The execution of a thousand Huguenots followed. Death removed Francis II. from his beautiful wife Mary Stuart and the sorrows of France. His brother Charles, a child of ten years, became Charles IX., with the queen-mother, Catherine, as regent. Royal edicts in favor of Huguenot toleration angered the Guises and caused them to massacre a company of Huguenots worshipping in a barn at Vassy. "Sieges, battles, and truces followed one another in rapid and confusing succession. Conspiracies, treacheries, and assassinations help to fill up the dreary record of the period. The treaty of St. Germain (in 1562) brought a short but, as it proved, delusive peace." Catherine tried to cement the treaty by the marriage of Charles's sister Margaret to Henry Bourbon, King of Navarre. "Before the wedding festivities which followed the nuptial ceremonies were over, Catherine, fearfully angered by the influence which Admiral Coligny had suddenly acquired over the young King Charles, had planned the world-shocking massacre of the Huguenots, on St. Bartholomew's day, August 24, 1572. This massacre, "instead of exterminating heresy in France, only served to drive the Huguenots to a more determined defence of their faith." Henry, the brother of Charles IX., became Henry III. in 1574. Turmoil and war filled his reign of fifteen years. The avenging dagger of a Dominican monk put an end to Henry

III. and the House of Valois-Orleans. Henry of Bourbon, a Protestant Prince, now became Henry IV. It required four years to settle the affairs of France. After the famous battle of Ivry, Henry, in the interest of peace, abjured the Huguenot faith but granted the Huguenots various important concessions in the celebrated edict of Nantes (1598). Thus closed the Reformation century in France.

(3) "France now entered upon such a period of prosperity as she had not known for many years." A fanatic having assassinated Henry IV. in 1610, his son, a child of nine years, became Louis XIII., and the queen-mother was appointed regent. Attaining his majority, Louis, in 1622, chose as his chief minister "Cardinal Richelieu," one of the most remarkable characters of the seventeenth century. Richelieu completely destroyed the political power of the French Protestants, and thus made the French king absolute in France. Then, in order to make the power of France supreme in Europe, he gave the rest of his life to the unrelenting purpose of humbling Austria and Spain. Accordingly, although he had crushed French Protestantism, he took the side of the Protestant German Princes in the Thirty Years' War, which was then waging.

### THIRTY YEARS' WAR

(1) "The long and calamitous Thirty Years' War was the last great combat between Protestant-



ism and Catholicism in Europe." "It started as a struggle between the Protestant and Catholic princes of Germany, but gradually involved almost all the states of the continent, degenerating at last into a shameful and heartless struggle for power and territory." "The flames that were to desolate Germany for a generation were first kindled in Bohemia, where were still smouldering the embers of the Hussite wars. One Protestant church was torn down and another closed." The Protestants rose in revolt against King Ferdinand, elected a new Protestant king, and drove out the Jesuits. The Thirty Years' War had begun (1618). (2) Ferdinand, who now became emperor, crushed the Bohemian insurrection with little difficulty. Then followed the Danish period of the war, in which Ferdinand, by the support of the famous generals Tilly and Wallenstein, finally forced Christian IV. of Denmark to conclude a treaty of peace. In the Swedish period Gustavus Adolphus, one of the world's greatest characters, came to the assistance of the Protestants. The jealousy of Protestant princes kept him from reaching Magdeburg in time to save it from Tilly's horrible sack and pillage, but he caught and defeated him in the celebrated battle of Leipsic (1631), and, emboldened by his success, pushed southward into the very heart of Germany. Tilly disputed the march of Gustavus, but was fatally wounded. There was only one man who could turn the tide of victory. That man was

Wallenstein, whom, because he distrusted him, Ferdinand had dismissed from the imperial army a few months after the coming of Gustavus. Wallenstein was recalled, and, "after numerous marches and counter-marches, he attacked the Swedes in a terrible battle on the memorable field of Lützen, in Saxony. The Swedes won the day, but lost their leader and sovereign (1632)." Shortly afterwards Ferdinand caused Wallenstein to be assassinated. Sweden, represented by the Great Oxenstiern and supported, as already indicated, by Richelieu, and later on by Mazarin, the minister of Louis XIV., kept up the struggle until 1648, when the Treaty of Westphalia finally terminated the war. (3) "The chief articles of this important treaty may be made to fall under two heads,—(1) those relating to territorial boundaries, and (2) those respecting religion." The boundary provisions of the treaty reduced Germany to a loose confederation of almost independent states and postponed the nationalization of the empire to a distant future. The provisions regarding religion placed Catholics, Lutherans, and Calvinists all upon the same footing. It is simply impossible to picture the sorrows of Germany all through and after this war. Cities, commerce, fine arts, progress in science and learning, together with morals, had been ruthlessly sacrificed.

References : (1) Myers ; (2) Duruy.

THE AGE OF POLITICAL  
REVOLUTIONS



## THE AGE OF POLITICAL REVOLUTIONS

THE idea that the sovereigns of nations are god-appointed rulers, responsible to God alone, and that nations should obey their rulers like children obey their parents, submitting to God the avenging of all wrongs, became the prevailing theory of government early in the seventeenth century. The strong logic of revolution demonstrated that nations have a divine and inalienable right to govern themselves, and that the "divine right" to rule nations is dependent upon "the consent of the ruled."

### FRANCE

The early lines of French kings, as we ought to recall at this time, were the Merovingians (A.D. 486-752), best represented by the famous Clovis and the later Merovingian mayor Charles Martel, the hero of Tours (732); the Carolingians (A.D. 752-987), founded by Pepin the Short, with the Pope's consent, and best represented by Charlemagne, his illustrious son; the Capetians (A.D. 987-1328), founded by Hugh Capet, and best represented by Philip Augustus, Louis IX., and Philip the Fair; the House of Valois (1328-1498), founded by Philip VI., and best represented by

Charles VII. and Louis XI; the Valois-Orleans line (1498-1589), best represented by Francis I., the great rival of Charles V. of Germany; and finally the Bourbons (1589-1830), best represented by Louis XIV., interrupted by the French Revolution and ended in Charles X. In 1643, a little child of five years, the son of Louis XIII., became Louis XIV.

**Louis XIV.** “During the minority of Louis the government was in the hands of his mother, Anne of Austria, as regent. She chose as her prime minister an Italian ecclesiastic, Cardinal Mazarin, who, in the administration of affairs, followed in the footsteps of his predecessor, Richelieu, carrying out with great ability the comprehensive policy of that minister.” “Cardinal Mazarin died in 1661. For ten or twelve years, Louis, who now assumed the reins of government himself, followed the peace-policy of Colbert, the successor of Mazarin, and France was both prosperous and happy. Then came four ambitious but calamitous wars. Claiming portions of the Spanish Netherlands, he first went to war about the matter. Then, to punish Holland for interfering with his plans in the Spanish Netherlands, he began a second war. In spite of stout defence on the side of the brave Hollanders, Louis came out of this struggle with enhanced reputation and fresh acquisitions of territory. People now began to call him the *Grand Monarch*.” In 1685 Louis revoked “the edict of

Nantes, the well-known decree by which Henry IV. secured religious freedom to the French Protestants." This was a horrible mistake. "Under the fierce persecutions of the *Dragonnades*, probably as many as three hundred thousand of the most skilful and industrious of the subjects of Louis were driven out of the kingdom," many of them ultimately finding refuge in America. "The indirect results of the revocation of the edict of Nantes were quite as calamitous to France as were the direct results." William of Orange, the great champion of indignant Protestants, organized a formidable confederacy against Louis. Louis resolved to attack the confederates. Thus came the devastating war of the Palatinate, of which country he made a veritable desert. "In 1700 the King of Spain, Charles II., died, leaving his crown to Philip of Anjou, a grandson of Louis XIV." "Alarmed at this virtual consolidation of these two powerful kingdoms," England and Holland formed a second Grand Alliance against Louis. Thus came the war of the Spanish succession, the Grand Alliance favoring Charles, the Archduke of Austria, for the throne of Spain. The war lasted thirteen years, when, for various reasons, it was ended by the treaties of Utrecht and Rastadt. Finally, in 1715, after a reign of seventy-two years, the last fifty of which are known as the Age of Louis XIV., the Grand Monarch yielded to Him who is the King of kings. The world-famous

palace of Versailles, the brilliant court which he sustained, together with the literary lights of his age, made Louis XIV. the rage of all Europe, but all these things, together with his wars, left France in debt, vice, and sorrow, a heritage of woe to his great-grandson Louis, who was crowned as Louis XV.

**Louis XV.** The French people loved their young king at first, "but long before he laid down the sceptre, all their early love and admiration had been turned into hatred and contempt. Besides being overbearing and despotic, the king was indolent, rapacious, and scandalously profligate." In the year 1774, after a reign of fifty-nine years, twenty of which have been called the "Era of Shame," Louis XV. left his tottering throne to his grandson, then only twenty years of age, and only recently married to the fair and brilliant Marie Antoinette. By this time the causes which were now to produce the forever famous revolt of the French people against royal despotism and class privilege were all present in France. (1) The abuses and extravagances of the Bourbon monarchy was the fundamental cause of the French Revolution. Life, liberty, and equality in the pursuits of life and happiness were no longer respected by the kings of France. Money, gathered from exorbitant taxes and confiscations of property, "was squandered in maintaining a court the scandalous extravagances and debaucheries of which



would shame a Turkish sultan." (2) The French nobility, "the remains of the once powerful but now broken-down feudal aristocracy of the Middle Ages," were living in riotous luxury at Paris or Versailles, as the king's pensioners, and the holders of great landed properties. (3) The clergy formed a decayed feudal hierarchy, possessing enormous wealth and immense landed properties, almost free from taxes. Their patrician presumptions made them the object of hatred everywhere. (4) The poorer classes had become indescribably poor and wretched. The peasants suffered intolerable wrongs. France had become a hospital of woe. (5) Sceptic and revolutionary writers like Rousseau and Voltaire did much to create contempt for the institutions of civilization, and thus to produce the revolution. (6) "Not one of the least potent of the proximate causes of the French Revolution was the successful establishment of the American republic."

**Louis XVI.** (1) It was the earnest desire of Louis XVI. to correct the conditions of France. He "called to his side successively the most eminent financiers and statesmen as ministers and advisers; but their policies and remedies availed nothing. In 1787 he summoned the Notables, a body composed of great lords and prelates, but their coming together resulted in nothing." Finally, in great straits, he summoned "the States General, the almost forgotten assembly, composed

of representatives of the three estates,—the nobility, the clergy, and the commons, the latter being known as the Tiers État, or Third Estate.” (2) The States General met at Versailles, May 5, 1789, a memorable date in the annals of France. For five weeks a quarrel about voting by *orders*, as demanded by the Commons and opposed by the other orders, kept the assembly from doing business. Finally the Commons, emboldened by the tone of public opinion, declared themselves the National Assembly, and, after inviting the other orders to join them, met in one of the churches at Versailles. While this assembly, which had now really become France’s “national” assembly, was in session, Paris, angered by alarming rumors, became a raging mob and razed the old Bastille, or Paris prison, to the ground. This was a death-knell to Bourbon despotism and tyranny in general, and the massacre of royal supporters which followed caused what is known as the emigration of nobles. A few months after the destruction of the Bastille, and while the National Assembly was still at work in Versailles, a second Paris mob, frenzied by rumors and royal imprudence, surged out of the city into Versailles, captured the royal family, and, on returning to Paris, placed them in the Palace of the Tuileries, charging Lafayette to guard the king, who was kept as a sort of prisoner until the proposed new constitution could be formed. The king, hoping to put himself at the

head of the emigrant nobles, and, by the help of foreign aid, to overthrow the national assembly, carefully planned to flee. He escaped from the Tuileries with the royal family, but was arrested on the frontier of France and carried back to Paris. On the 14th of September, 1791, a new constitution, framed by the National Assembly, and making France a constitutional monarchy, was signed by the king. The assembly adjourned, and "the first scene in the drama of the French Revolution was ended." (3) "The new constitution called for a Legislative Assembly. This body, comprising seven hundred and forty-five members, was divided into three parties,—the Constitutionals, the Girondists, and the Mountainists." Many of the Mountainists, or radical republicans, were also members of the Jacobin Club or that of the Cordeliers. The kings of Europe watched France with anxiety, and resolved to crush its revolutionary party. Alarmed at the warlike preparations of Prussia and Austria, the French Legislative Assembly declared war against them (1792). A little later the allied armies of the Austrians and Prussians passed the frontiers of France. Emboldened by their first successes, the allies threatened Paris. Frantic with rage, and blaming the king for their woes, the Parisians massacred the Swiss Guards and seized the royal family in the Tuileries. To the massacre of the Swiss Guards was added a massacre

of all royalists confined in jails. The armies of the allies were nearing Paris, but were finally checked and completely defeated by the French generals at Valmy (September 20, 1792). "The day after this victory the Legislative Assembly came to an end, and the following day the National Convention assembled." (4) The National Convention consisted entirely of republicans. Without discussing the abolition of Royalty France was at once proclaimed a Republic (September 21, 1792). The Convention made sweeping changes, and even called upon all nations to rise against despotism. Convicted of conspiracy against France, Louis XVI. was executed on the scaffold (January 21, 1793). The monarchs of Europe stood aghast, and France was again threatened with invasion. Beset with foes without, the republic was threatened with even more dangerous enemies within. The Convention was equal to all emergencies. The Girondists, opposing all communistic measures in the Convention, were seized and massacred. The mob had become master of France; wild anarchy, the Reign of Terror, had begun. (5) The Convention of this First Republic of France vested supreme power in a so-called Committee of Public Safety, whose president was Marat, an incarnation of hell itself. Danton and Robespierre, brutes like Marat himself, were members of the Committee. Thus was inaugurated the Reign of

Terror. Suspects of every kind were hurried to the guillotine. Charlotte Corday, believing that Marat's death would help France, stabbed him in his rooms. It was all in vain. "The rage of the revolutionists was at this moment turned anew against the remaining members of the royal family, proclaiming the Dauphin King of France." Among the first to suffer was the lovely Marie Antoinette. Others followed her in rapid succession. Sweeping changes were made in the customs of France. Christianity was abolished, and a Goddess of Reason set up instead. By and by the Terrorists began to exterminate each other. To make his own power supreme, Robespierre resolved to crush Hebert and Danton. "His ambition was attained. He stood alone on the awful eminence of the mountain." "One of the first acts of the dictator was to give France a new religion in place of the worship of Reason." "At the same time that Robespierre was establishing a new religion, he was desolating France with massacres of incredible atrocity, and ruling by a terrorism unparalleled since the most frightful days of Rome." Three months were passing. Reaction came. France began to turn with horror and pity from the scenes of the guillotine. Some one dared to denounce Robespierre at a meeting of the Convention. "The spell was broken," and the monster's head fell July 28, 1794. The Reign of Terror was over, and better conditions established.

Among other things, Christianity and the Christian Sabbath were at once restored. But the scattered forces of the Terrorists reorganized and, forty thousand strong, they attacked the Tuileries, where the Convention was in session (October 5, 1795). The mob was scattered by the young and dashing Corsican,—Napoleon Bonaparte. “The Revolution had at last brought forth a man of genius capable of controlling and directing its tremendous energies.” (6) “A few weeks after the defence of the Convention by Napoleon, that body declaring its labors ended, closed its sessions, and immediately afterwards the Councils and Board of Directors provided for by the new constitution, that had been framed by the Convention, assumed control of affairs.” Under this Board of Directors, or Directory, the republic entered upon an aggressive policy. A republic herself, France longed to make all nations republics. The French armies were everywhere welcomed as deliverers. Short-lived republics, among them that of Switzerland, were rapidly established. “Austria and England were the only formidable powers that opposed the Directory openly.” The Directors, to stop all opposition, determined to raise three armies. One of these was placed in the hands of Napoleon, to whom was assigned the work of driving the Austrians out of Italy. He gained the surprising victories of Arcole and Rivoli, and forced Francis II.

to sign the important peace of Campo Formio (1797). Paris honored the returning victor with ovations such as had not been seen since the days of Rome. The jealous and suspecting Directory, to remove him from France, accepted his plan to worry England in Egypt. Here he won the famous battle of the Pyramids, but the English admiral Nelson had just destroyed his fleet in the bay of Aboukir, at the mouth of the Nile (1798). "In the spring of 1799, Napoleon led his army into Syria, the Porte having joined in a new coalition against France." Bitterly disappointed because he could not capture Acre, defended as it was by the brave Sydney, he led his army back into Egypt, and there, near Aboukir, he won a brilliant victory over a fresh Turkish army. During Napoleon's absence the Directory had established several new republics, but the leading states of Europe, encouraged by Nelson's victory, had formed a new coalition against France, and in the war which followed French reverses had made the Directory very unpopular. "News of the desperate affairs at home reached Napoleon just after his victory in Egypt, following his return from Syria. Confiding the command of his army to Kleber, he set sail for France, where he received a most encouraging welcome in his plot to overthrow the Directory." Meeting with opposition in the Council of Five Hundred, Napoleon, with a body of grenadiers, drove the deputies from their chamber

(November 9, 1799). A new constitution, submitted and approved by the people, transformed the republic into a veiled monarchy, with Napoleon as First Consul. (7) The consulate of Napoleon was, if anything, more repugnant to Europe than the Directory of the First Republic. Austria and England refused to acknowledge the government of the usurper. Napoleon again mustered his armies. Crossing the Alps, he defeated the Austrians at Marengo, and Italy lay at Napoleon's feet again (June 14, 1800). Kleber, however, was assassinated and Egypt lost. But Moreau, the great general of Napoleon, defeating the Austrians at Hohenlinden, opened the way to Vienna. The treaty of Lunéville made the Rhine the eastern boundary of France. Napoleon now (1801) turned his attention to the internal development of France, laying the basis of a grand school system, promoting the interests of the church, and promulgating a system of laws which has since become fundamental in France, Holland, Belgium, Western Germany, Switzerland, and Italy. France was simply delighted with the First Consul. A vote of the people made him emperor, 1804. (8) Crowning himself and his lovely Josephine in the famous church of Notre Dame, Napoleon I. had become absolutely intolerable to the monarchies of Europe. Great coalitions were formed against the First Empire, with England always at the head of Napoleon's enemies. War came. "It was the



war of the giants. To relate in detail the campaigns of Napoleon from Austerlitz to Waterloo would require the space of volumes." We shall have to content ourselves with the mere thread of events. In 1805 he humbled Austria at Austerlitz, and completely changed the map of Europe. Lord Nelson's defeat of the French fleet at Trafalgar gave the sovereignty of the ocean and its islands to England. In 1806 Napoleon humbled Prussia, and in 1807 Russia. "By two celebrated imperial decrees, called from the cities whence they were issued the Berlin and the Milan decree, he closed all the ports of the continent against English ships, and forbade any of the European nations from holding any intercourse with Great Britain, all of whose ports he declared in a state of blockade." This "continental policy" brought him into conflict with Portugal and Spain, 1808. Napoleon's brother obtained the Bourbon crown. The Peninsula revolted and, aided by Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, drove the French beyond the Ebro. Napoleon, however, took the field again, and reseatd his brother on the Spanish throne. Taking advantage of Napoleon's troubles in the Peninsula, Francis I., of Austria, declared war against the French emperor. It was all in vain. In 1809, after the battles of Eckmühl and Wagram, Napoleon a second time entered Vienna. The next year (1810) "Napoleon divorced his wife Josephine, in order to form a

new alliance with Maria Louisa, Archduchess of Austria." In 1811 "Napoleon was at the height of his marvellous fortunes. Marengo, Austerlitz, Jena, Friedland, and Wagram were the successive steps by which he had mounted to the most dizzy heights of military power and glory." But there were elements of weakness which began to operate his ruin. Among these were his "continental policy," his unpopular divorce, his nepotism, and the heterogeneous constitution of his vast domains. The Czar of Russia entered a coalition against him. Therefore, in 1812, "Napoleon crossed the frontiers of Russia, at the head of what was proudly called the Grand Army, numbering more than half a million of men." He got as far as Moscow, which he found deserted. Unable to hold the place, and too proud to accept proposals of peace, he began his fatal retreat. Who can describe Napoleon's retreat. Leaving the remnants of a shattered army to his marshals, he hurried to Paris, raised an army, but was defeated in the famous battle of the nations at Leipsic (1813). The armies of the allied forces of Europe now poured over all the French frontiers. "Paris surrendered to the allies." Napoleon was "forced to abdicate, and the ancient house of Bourbon was re-established in the person of a brother of Louis XVI., who took the title of Louis XVIII. Napoleon was banished to the little island of Elba, west of Italy.

**Louis XVIII.** “After the overthrow of Napoleon, Commissioners of the different European states met at Vienna to readjust the map.” While they were still in session (1815), Napoleon, inspired by reports of the despotism and unpopularity of Louis XVIII., landed with a few followers at one of the southern ports of France, rousing the whole country with one of his stirring addresses, and then immediately pushing on towards Paris. His old generals and soldiers embraced him with transports of joy. Louis XVIII., deserted by his army, was left helpless, and, as Napoleon approached the gates of Paris, he fled from his throne. Then (June 18, 1815) came the world-famous battle of Waterloo in Belgium. Here, after breaking his columns all day upon the English squares, Napoleon had to yield to Wellington, reinforced at the critical moment by Blücher with thirty thousand Prussians. Knowing that Grouchy, the general upon whose arrival in time French success might have been possible, must have been intercepted by Blücher, Napoleon galloped from the field and fled. All was lost. Napoleon was exiled by the English to St. Helena, where he had time to reflect on all his glories and all his follies. Louis XVIII., returning, finished his reign, dying in 1824.

**Charles X.** A brother of Louis XVI. and Louis XVIII. now succeeded to the throne of the restored Bourbons, 1824. He, like all the Bour-

bons, was a despot. In 1830 "the people rose in revolt, and by one of those sudden movements for which Paris is so noted, the despot was driven into exile, and Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, was placed upon the throne."

**Louis Philippe.** A new constitution was adopted, and the French people, for a while at least, were happy under their "Citizen King." "Up to 1848 the reign of Louis Philippe was very quiet. Finally, in 1848, some unpopular measures of the government caused an uprising similar to that of 1830. Louis Philippe, under the assumed name of Mr. Smith, fled to England. The Second Republic was now established."

**Second Republic.** An election made Louis Napoleon, nephew of the great Napoleon, president of the new republic, December 20, 1848. He followed the governmental policy of his uncle. Dissensions having arisen between himself and the legislative assembly, he suddenly dissolved that body, placed its leaders under arrest, and then appealed to the country to endorse what he had done. The next year (1852) he was made emperor, and took the title of Napoleon III.

**Napoleon III.** The important political events of the Second Empire were the Crimean War, the Austro-Sardinian War, and the Franco-Prussian War. Of the first two we are to write by and by. "The real causes of the Franco-Prussian War were French jealousy of the growing power of

Prussia, and the emperor's anxiety to strengthen his government in the affections of the French people by reviving the military glory of the reign of his great uncle." When Prussia allowed Prince Leopold, of Hohenzollern, to become a candidate for the vacant throne of Spain, the French found their final pretext for war. Prussia was invaded. The French were pushed back and defeated. After the capture of the strong fortress of Sedan, where the emperor himself was imprisoned, the Prussians marched upon Paris, forcing that city, after an investment of a few months, to capitulate (1871). The terms of the treaty caused a reign of terror, but "the government at length succeeded in suppressing the anarchists and restoring order." Thus was born the Third Republic of France.

**Third Republic.** M. Thiers, the historian, was made the first president, 1871. The French people are learning to govern themselves. The country is making rapid progress in education and all the departments of civilization. At this writing Loubet, a very able statesman, is the French president.

### ENGLAND

The first civilized rulers of the British isles, as we should here try to recall, were the Romans. Then came the Anglo-Saxons, producing such kings as Egbert and Alfred the Great, with both of whom the history student should be well acquainted. The Danes followed under Canute, a

noble man indeed. After a brief restoration of the Anglo-Saxons, in the person of Edward the Confessor, came the battle of Hastings (1066), and the Norman kings from France, bringing with them an improved feudal system. The Plantagenet branch of the Norman line continued in power, in spite of the stout feudal opposition to their despotism, until 1485, when, as conqueror on the battle-field of Bosworth, Henry Tudor became Henry VII. Feudalism had received its death-blow and absolute monarchy had come. The Tudor line ended with Elizabeth's death, 1603. "With the end of the Tudor line, James VI. of Scotland, son of Mary Stuart, came to the English throne as James I." "The Stuarts were firm believers in the 'divine right' of kings. They held that hereditary princes are the Lord's anointed, and that their authority can in no way be questioned or limited by people, priest, or Parliament." The most extravagant claims of the Stuarts, such as the "Royal Touch," seemed to go unchallenged by the people over whom the Stuarts were to rule. We shall soon see, however, that in England, as in France, the claim to "divine rights" on the part of rulers must yield to the divine rights of the people.

**James I.** Disappointed at the course which James I. had taken in religious matters, Guy Fawkes plotted to blow up the Parliament Building on the opening day of the Session. This "Gunpowder Plot" of 1605, although it was unsuccess-

ful, had very serious results. Among the interesting things in connection with the reign of James I. are the colonial settlements of Jamestown and Plymouth, in America, and the trade settlement of the East India Company at Surat. The main feature of his reign, however, was the constant quarrel with Parliament about the limits of royal power in matters of legislation, the collection of customs, free debates by the Commons, etc. Among the noteworthy literary productions of this period is the so-called King James's version of the Bible. Sir Walter Raleigh and Francis Bacon are the conspicuous writers of James's reign.

**Charles I.** (1) "Charles I. came to the throne with all his father's lofty notions about the divine right of kings." After some preliminary skirmishes, Parliament forced him to sign a certain *Petition of Rights*, reaffirming the provisions of the famous Magna Charta. The things against which this Petition stood in particular were arbitrary imprisonment, the quartering of soldiers in private houses, and trial without jury. To punish Parliament for its audacity he undertook to rule without it for eleven years. His unscrupulous agents were his ministers, Thomas Wentworth and William Laud. The tyrannical proceedings of the king and his agents were enforced by certain despotic courts known as the Council of the North, dealing with the turbulent northern counties of England; the infamous Star Chamber, dealing

chiefly with criminal cases affecting the government; and the High Commission Court, to enforce the acts of Supremacy and Conformity. John Hampden's trial by the Star Chamber is particularly illustrative of Charles's method. (2) The king tried hard to impose the English liturgy upon the Scotch Presbyterians. Banded into an association known as Covenanters, the Scots undertook to defend their faith. To meet the Scottish forces, who finally crossed the border into England, Charles was forced (1640) to summon the two Houses of Parliament. Instead of dealing first with the king's requests for money, etc., the House of Commons impeached Strafford and Laud, abolished the three iniquitous courts of Charles, and enacted a law preventing their adjournment or dissolution without their own consent. The king was furious. Attempting to arrest the leaders of this so-called Long Parliament, Hampden and Pym, the king precipitated civil war, 1642. (3) The Royalists, or Cavaliers, were defeated in several famous battles, as at Marston Moor and Naseby, by the Parliamentarians, or Roundheads, under the leadership of the redoubtable Oliver Cromwell with his Puritan Ironsides, organized into the famous "New Model" army. Worsted at Naseby, the king fled to the Scots, but was surrendered to the Parliament. There were many in the Parliament who favored the unconditional restoration of Charles to his throne, but Pride's purge



left the Independents masters of the House of Commons. The Commons, thus reduced to about forty independents, condemned the king on charges of tyranny, etc. His head fell on the executioner's block, 1649. (4) The "Rump Parliament," or what was left of the Long Parliament after Colonel Pride's "purge," now abolished monarchy and the House of Lords, making England a republic, under the name of "The Commonwealth," with Oliver Cromwell as its real head. The new republic was soon almost overwhelmed with trouble, but Cromwell, by his summary dealing with Ireland and by his famous victories over the Scots at Dunbar and Worcester, succeeded not only in overawing his opponents but in commanding Continental respect. (5) In 1653, while England was still at war with Holland, Cromwell came to an open quarrel with the Rump Parliament and drove them out at the sword's point. The Little Parliament, or Praise-God-Bare-Bone Parliament, which he called, did some good work, but, before the year had ended, resigned all its powers into Cromwell's hands. He had virtually become a dictator. The "Lord Protector," as he was now called, was a harsh and despotic dictator in his administration of affairs, but "he gave England the strongest, and in many respects the best, government she had had since the days of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth." Troubled by the perplexities of his position, and undermined in health by overwork and anxiety, he

finally lay down to die (September 3, 1658). His weak son Richard became the head of the Protectorate, but after a few months resigned his power. "For some months after the fall of the Protectorate the country trembled on the verge of anarchy. The great mass of the English people earnestly desired the restoration of the Monarchy. Charles, the son of Charles I., was finally invited by both the army and Parliament to return to the throne of his ancestors (1660)." The religious side of the English revolution, which thus ended in the restoration of the Stuarts, is best understood by a careful study of Puritan literature. Among the best works are Milton's "Paradise Lost," and John Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress."

**Charles II.** On succeeding to his father's throne, Charles II. punished the regicides and disbanded the "New Model," retaining in his service three carefully chosen regiments, to which he gave the name of Guards. The services of the Anglican Church were restored by Parliament, and non-conformists were harshly treated. The Scotch Covenanters fared worst of all. A secret treaty with his cousin Louis XIV. to restore England to Rome in religion finally became known. The open secret made England very uneasy. Excitement produced by a supposed plot to massacre the Protestants "led Parliament to pass what was called the Test Act, which excluded Catholics from the House of Lords." There were many in both Houses who

were determined to exclude the Duke of York, brother of Charles II., from the throne. This division of sentiment was the origin of the Tories, who favored the duke's succession, and the Whigs, who objected.

**James II.** When Charles II. died the Tories succeeded in giving the succession to his brother, and he became James II. (1685). This man at once began to play the despot in state and in church. The course of the king raised up enemies on all sides. The birth of a prince, cutting off the hope of the nation that Mary Stuart, the Protestant wife of William, the Prince of Orange, might be the next ruler, hastened the crisis. Parliament invited William to take forcible possession of the government. The concessions of the hitherto infatuated king came too late. He was absolutely deserted. The Prince of Orange had come, and James must flee. The Convention which William called conferred "the royal dignity upon William and his wife Mary as joint sovereigns of the realm." After signing the celebrated "Declaration of Rights," which guaranteed many invaluable rights, the two were declared king and queen of England. Thus was effected what is known as the "Revolution of 1688," the causes for which are faithfully reflected in the literature of the Restoration. Among the most famous works are Butler's "Hudibras" and the "Don Quixote," by Cervantes.

**William and Mary.** (1) "The Revolution of 1688 and the settlement of the crown upon William and Mary mark an epoch in the constitutional history of England. It settled forever the long dispute between king and Parliament. The Bill of Rights,—the articles of the Declaration of Rights framed into a law,—which was one of the earliest acts of the first Parliament under William and Mary, in effect transferred sovereignty from the king to the House of Commons." Other important enactments followed and became parts of the present constitution of England. (2) William and Mary had a good deal of trouble with the Jacobites, or supporters of the exiled James II. James was also aided by his cousin Louis XIV. The decisive battle of the Boyne gave England rest from James. (3) William, however, to punish Louis XIV. for his support of James, persuaded England to take sides against Louis in the war of the Spanish Succession. William died before this war was over, and, his wife Mary also having died, her sister Anne succeeded to the English throne.

**Anne.** (1) "The war of the Spanish Succession covered the whole of the reign of Queen Anne." (2) From 1707 on England and Scotland were united into one kingdom, under the name of Great Britain, and represented by one Parliament. (3) "The reign of Queen Anne is an illustrious one in English literature." Among those writers

who best represent the politics of Queen Anne's time are Pope, Swift, Addison, and Defoe. Sir Isaac Newton made this period famous through the publication of his scientific treatise, the "Principia." (4) Anne died in 1714, leaving no heirs. In accordance with the Act of Settlement passed in William's reign the elector of Hanover now became king of England under the title of George I. The House of Hanover rules England to-day.

**George I.** The new king was "utterly ignorant of the language and the affairs of the people over whom he had been called to rule." England simply tolerated him because he "represented Protestantism and those principles of political liberty for which they had so long battled with the Stuart kings." The Whigs had everything their own way in the reign of George I.

**George II.** George II. "continued his father's domestic policy of favoring the Whigs," and retained his father's prime minister Walpole. In the interests of his beloved Hanover, he took the side of Maria Theresa against Frederick the Great in the first and second Silesian wars. "The last years of the king's reign saw the British armies victorious in India and in Canada, and the British fleet in control of the seas."

**George III.** Born and educated in England, "George III. regained some of the old influence of former kings." Lord North and the younger Pitt were the most notable of his prime ministers.

The Treaty of Paris (1763) gave him Canada and Florida, but he lost the Thirteen Colonies of America, and was again defeated by the United States in 1812. The last years of his reign were spent in hopeless insanity. He died in 1820, having been king of Great Britain for sixty years.

**George IV.** Although he had allied himself with the Whigs as Prince of Wales, he preferred the Tory side as king. His divorce history is a record of shame. "The chief event of his reign was the passage of the Emancipation Act," 1829. He died in 1830.

**William IV.** The "sailor king," William IV., was the brother of George IV. "The chief events of his reign were the passage of the Reform Bill" (1832), correcting various evils of a corrupt and farcical system of sending representatives from "pocket boroughs" to the House of Commons; and the Emancipation Bill (1833), abolishing slavery from British domains. He died in 1837, and was succeeded by Victoria, a granddaughter of George III.

**Victoria.** Almost everything of importance in the modern history of England belongs to Queen Victoria's long reign of nearly sixty-four years. The leading events of her reign may be summed up under three heads,—progress towards democracy; expansion of the principle of religious equality; and growth of the British Empire in the East. (1) "While the Reform Bill of 1832 was almost

revolutionary in the principle it established, it went only a little way in the application of the principle. It admitted to the franchise the middle classes only. The great laboring class were given no part in the government." Thus arose "Chartism," an agitation demanding "universal suffrage, vote by ballot, annual parliaments, the division of the country into equal electoral districts, the abolition of the property qualification of members, and payment for their services." In 1848 the Chartists were suppressed by the queen's show of force, but the most important of their demands have since become a part of the English Constitution. The Reform Bill of 1867 extended the right of voting to the masses. In 1884, through Gladstone, the prime minister, the great agricultural classes were enfranchised. In 1886 he introduced a bill granting Ireland the right of making her own laws, but this "Home Rule" for Ireland has thus far not been granted by England. (2) "Alongside the political movement traced in the preceding section has run a similar one in the religious realm." "At the opening of the nineteenth century there was in England religious freedom, but no religious equality." Catholics, Jews, and all who did not hold to the Anglican Church were debarred from many civil rights and privileges. The number of dissenting Protestants increased very rapidly in the reign of George III., through the reform labors of Whitfield and Wesley. The movement soon commanded

respect. In 1828, during the reign of George IV., the provision requiring persons holding office to be communicants of the Anglican Church, was repealed. The next year, chiefly through the eloquent Daniel O'Connell, the *Catholic Emancipation Act* opened nearly all the offices below the crown to Catholics. Since 1858 the House of Commons, and just lately the House of Lords, has been opened to the Jews. As yet growth in the religious equality of British subjects does not extend to its desired perfection. Ireland, it is true, was emancipated from the Anglican Church in 1869, chiefly through Gladstone, but Scotland is still waiting for her release. (3) Within the last three centuries England has established a world-empire, the sun never setting on her dominions. She gained foothold in India before the close of the seventeenth century, chiefly through the East India Company. About the middle of the eighteenth century France had a better hold on India than England. The story of the Black Hole of Calcutta illustrates the difficulties of the situation. Lord Clive's victory at Plassey (1757) gave England the upper hand in India. England has watched Russia's encroachments upon Asia ever since. "It was England's policy to maintain the Afghan state as a barrier between her and East India" that produced the ill-starred Afghan war of 1838 to 1842. Then followed the opium war of 1840 to 1842, in which England



forced China to submit to the iniquitous opium traffic between India and China. To keep Russia from seizing Constantinople and the Bosphorus, and from controlling Asia through the Eastern Mediterranean, England became a party against Russia in the Crimean War of 1854 to 1856. The Sepoy mutiny followed in 1857, but was over before the close of 1858. In 1877 Queen Victoria finally became Empress of India. Within the last century England has entered the race for the control of Africa. In order to protect her interest in the Suez canal, as a gate-way to her East India possessions, England has had several serious affairs on hand in Egypt. Her calamitous war with the Boers for the possession of Africa began in 1898 and has just been concluded (1902), England compensating the conquered Boers in various generous ways for their loss of independence. Probably the world has never had a more illustrious queen than Victoria. Giant statesmen made it possible for her to develop the domestic and colonial resources of England, perfect her already excellent constitutional government, and command a voice in the world's affairs. Lord Tennyson, Canon Farrar, Gladstone, George Eliot, and other great modern authors have made the Victorian Age of literature a very glorious one.

**Edward VII.** (1) The reign of Edward VII., son of Queen Victoria and Albert, began amid the gloom of war-reverses in Africa, 1901. Lord Sal-

isbury, his mother's great prime minister after Gladstone's death, was retained, but, since his late resignation, has been succeeded by Lord Balfour, a very able statesman. (2) The most important event of Edward's reign was the successful conclusion of the war with the Boers. Edward has endeared himself to his people in various ways, and his diplomatic attitude in his country's international affairs commands respect. On the 9th of August, 1902, Edward was crowned in Westminster Abbey as Edward VII. and Emperor of India. His beautiful queen, Alexandra, and the munificent gift of the Osborne House to the nation, help to make Edward very popular. (3) With exceptionally able counsellors in both Houses of Parliament, an immense army and navy, an intelligent and moral people, and almost inexhaustible material resources, the reign of Edward bids fair to rival that of his illustrious mother, Queen Victoria.

### GERMANY

The first line of German kings, as we should recall at this time, were Carlovingsians, the descendants of Charlemagne. Then came the Saxon emperors, restoring the Holy Roman Empire in the tenth century. The Franconian emperors of the eleventh century are best represented by the quarrel of Henry IV. with Pope Gregory, or Hildebrand. The Hohenstaufen emperors of the twelfth century were crusaders, who also built great cathedrals and

quarrelled with popes. The House of Austria, or Hapsburg line, beginning with Albert's election in 1438, partly solidified the feudal aggregation of German states into a loosely bound empire, and thus closed the Middle Ages in Germany. In 1415 Frederick Hohenzollern purchased the Electorate of Brandenburg from the Hapsburg Emperor Sigismund, and thus laid the foundation of the ruling house of Germany to-day. In the mean time the Austrian house continued in power all through the century of the Reformation, the most noted emperor being Charles I., whom we met in connection with Spain, France, and the Netherlands. In 1611 the small states of Brandenburg and Prussia were united under one ruler. From that time forward Prussia under its Hohenzollern rulers rapidly assumed control of Germany as we think of it to-day. In 1640, near the close of the Thirty Years' War, in which Prussia had not played a very worthy part, Frederick William became the Elector of Brandenburg and Duke of Prussia. He is better known as the "Great Elector," because "he laid the basis of the military power of Prussia by the formation of a standing army, and transmitted to his son and successor a strongly centralized and despotic government." The German people celebrate the Great Elector's fame to-day with literary and sculptural monuments.

**Kings of Prussia.** (1) Through military services, which the Great Elector's son Frederick was

able to render to the Austrian emperor in the war of the Spanish Succession, he became Frederick I. of Prussia. "The event is a landmark in German, and even European, history." (2) His son, Frederick William I., is best remembered in connection with his Potsdam Giants, a famous body-guard of two thousand four hundred men, and for his habit of caning idlers. "Rough, brutal tyrant though he was, Frederick William was an able and energetic ruler." He left an army of eighty thousand men to his son. (3) His son as Frederick II. became Frederick the Great through his two wars with the Austrian queen Maria Theresa for the possession of Silesia. There were times when this poetic sceptic, who seemed to love no one except his mother, could hardly hope to win against the heavy national odds with which he had to contend in these wars, but he came out with great glory. The famous windmill of Potsdam, the royal residence of German kings, as well as his palace there, still speak loudly of Frederick's love of fair play and of his luxurious tastes. He lies buried, side by side with his father, under the pulpit of a Potsdam church. (4) A nephew of Frederick the Great succeeded him in 1786, as Frederick William II. "He formed an alliance with Austria in 1792 for the purpose of restoring Louis XVI. of France, but concluded the separate peace of Basel with the revolutionary government of France in 1795. He took part in the second and third partitions of Po-

land." (5) In 1797 the son of Frederick William II. became Frederick William III. "He refused to join the third coalition against France in 1805; declared war against France in 1806; signed the treaty of Tilsit in 1807; joined France against Russia in 1812; joined in the war of Liberation in 1813; was present at the Congress of Vienna in 1815; and joined the Holy Alliance in 1815."

(6) Frederick William IV., son of Frederick William III., became his father's successor in 1840. "He was compelled by a revolutionary movement in 1848 to grant a constitution, and in 1849 declined the imperial crown offered him by the German National Assembly at Frankfort. As he was rendered incompetent to reign by a serious malady, his brother (afterwards William I.) became regent in 1858."

We return to 1815 in order to trace the growth of freedom and unity of Germany as we have it to-day. (1) In that year "the German states, thirty-nine in number, were organized by the Congress of Vienna as a Confederation, with the emperor of Austria president of the league." "Though Austria was nominally the head of the Confederation, Prussia was actually the most powerful member of the league." The rulers of the German states thus confederated "refused or neglected to carry out in good faith that article of the Confederation which provided for representative governments in all the German states." By the

revolutionary demands of 1830 liberal constitutions were secured by the people of several German states. (2) The first step towards the real union of German states came through a commercial treaty to which eventually all the states except Austria acceded. The policy of free trade thus adopted in this so-called *Customs Union* "taught the people to think of a more perfect national union, and, as Prussia was a prominent promoter and centre of the trade confederation, it accustomed the Germans to look to her as their head and chief." (3) The revolutionary demands of 1848 gave practically all the German states liberal constitutions. (4) Through the obstinate despotism and ambition of Prince Metternich, the prime minister of the Austrian emperor, Austria missed her opportunity to compete with Prussia for the leadership among the German states. While Austria was busy (1848-1849) in suppressing her revolting subjects of Hungary, the champion of whose liberty was the illustrious Kossuth, Prussia succeeded in uniting some of the German states into an alliance called the "German Union." This movement led Austria to form a similar union. At this moment the German states were grouped about Prussia and Austria like the Grecian states were grouped about Athens and Sparta at the opening of the Peloponnesian War. War was inevitable. (5) Prince Bismarck, the "Iron Chancellor" of William I. of Prussia, saw that the rivalry between

Prussia and Austria could be settled only "by blood and iron." The Austro-Prussian war, as it is called, began in 1866. Prussia was well prepared, and her well-disciplined army, under the command of the great general Moltke, easily won the famous battle of Sadowa, in Bohemia. Seven weeks of war had ended the long debate and "Prussia was now without a rival in Germany." Moved by this victory the Northern states of Germany, with Prussia as their head, were organized into the North-German Union, but the Southern states were as yet quite out of sympathy with Prussia. (6) Then came the quarrel with jealous France, the Franco-Prussian War of 1870-1871. The hero of Sadowa captured Napoleon III., as has been said, and besieged Paris, forcing the French to submit to a most humiliating peace. And "while the siege of Paris was progressing, commissioners were sent by the Southern states to Versailles, the head-quarters of King William, to represent to him the willingness of Baden, Bavaria, and Württemberg, to enter the North-German Union." "Scarcely was this accomplished, when, upon the suggestion of the King of Bavaria, King William, who now bore the title of *President* of the Confederation, was given the title of *German Emperor*, which honor was to be hereditary in his family. On the 18th of January, 1871, within the Palace of Versailles, the siege of Paris being still

in progress," King William was crowned as Emperor William I. of Germany.

**William I.** The first emperor of United Germany was a man of great sagacity and high character, and, in the few years which remained to him after his coronation as emperor, he administered the affairs of the new government with remarkable energy, seconded by the remarkable Chancellor Bismarck.

**Frederick I.** The successor of William I. was his son Frederick I. (1888). He ruled only a few months. A fatal malady kept him from the execution of a broad national policy.

**William II.** (1) The son of Frederick I. succeeded him in 1888 as William II. Two years later (1890) this vigorous young ruler promptly dismissed Prince Bismarck for opposing him in his policy of personally controlling the government. The determined German emperor has already made himself the idol of his people. His policy of government is aggressive and intelligent. (2) The only event of political importance in his reign up to this time is the part which his government played in the late war of the Powers with China, his generals taking part in the battles which led to the investment of Peking. William II. is an ardent promoter of religion, education, commerce, and art. (3) With all the resources of a strong government, a well-disciplined army, and a navy second only to that of England, William II., as the



emperor of a nation capable of the highest attainments in civilization, must surely be reckoned with in the affairs of the twentieth century.

### RUSSIA.

“ We left Russia, at the close of the Middle Ages, a semi-savage, semi-Asiatic power, so hemmed in by barbarian lands and hostile races as to be almost entirely cut off from intercourse with the civilized world.” (1) “ The royal line established in Russia by the old Norseman Rurik ended in 1589. Then followed a period of confusion and of foreign invasion, known as the Troublous Times, (2) after which a prince of the celebrated house of Romanoff came to the throne.” “ Towards the close of the seventeenth century there ascended the Russian throne a man whose capacity and energy and achievements instantly drew the gaze of his contemporaries, and who has elicited the admiration and wonder of all succeeding generations. This was Peter I., universally known as Peter the Great.”

**Peter the Great.** (1) This young man of seventeen years became Peter I. of Russia (1682). “ Peter saw clearly that the need of his empire was outlets upon the sea.” (2) In 1696 he succeeded in capturing Azof, and thus gained his first harbor on the south. (3) In 1697 he left the government in the hands of three nobles, and made his way to the Netherlands to study ship-building and West-

ern civilization. He also visited England, and was royally treated by King William III., who had become England's sovereign in 1688. (4) On returning to Russia he literally Europeanized his country, and went even so far as to clothe his subjects with the very "garments of Western civilization." Among his reforms were schools, a postal system, Western laws, and town governments. (5) Supposing that Charles XII., the boy-king of Sweden, who had just come to the throne, could not defend his country successfully, Peter leagued with Poland and Denmark in 1700 to rob Charles of territory along the Southern Baltic. The conspirators had miscalculated. In two weeks Charles had forced the Danish king to sue for peace, and shortly afterwards he won a brilliant victory over eighty thousand Russians at Narva, on the Gulf of Finland. The chastised Czar took his defeat heroically, and, while Charles was busy punishing Poland, founded St. Petersburg (1703). Charles had pretty much his own way in Poland, but on crossing the frontiers of Russia the second time, he was ignominiously defeated at Pultowa (1709). "It was Charles's Waterloo." Returning from Turkey, whither he had escaped from Pultowa, he perished in the siege of Frederickshall, in Norway (1718). Charles, who had by this time earned the title of the "Madman of the North," thus died at the age of thirty-six years. (6) After the battle of Pultowa Peter obtained his coveted strip of

Baltic seaboard, and seized the south shore of the Caspian Sea. A fever ended his great and useful life at the age of fifty-four years (1725). It remains to be said that Peter the Great, quite contrary to his intentions, introduced a civilization which fosters popular liberties, and undermines the personal, despotic government of the Czars.

**Catherine the Great.** The next important ruler of Russia was a great but dreadful woman, Catherine II., crowned 1762. She carried out the expansion policy inaugurated by Peter the Great. "The most noteworthy matters of her reign were the conquest of the Crimea and the dismemberment of Poland." The possession of the Crimean peninsula gave Russia dominion on the Black Sea, and Poland became Catherine's "door-mat" into Western Europe. Her laws and patronage of letters, as well as her ruling powers, have won for Catherine the title of "Great." Through her influence Russia has become one of the foremost powers of Europe. She died in 1796.

**Alexander I.** (1) "Upon the downfall of Napoleon, Alexander I. (1801-1825) of Russia organized the celebrated union known as the *Holy Alliance*." The chief members of this Alliance were Russia, Austria, and Prussia. (2) "Under the pretext of maintaining religion, justice, and order, the sovereigns of the union acted in concert to suppress every aspiration among their subjects for political liberty." Alexander had really meant

to be a father to his people, but conspiracies among his own subjects and popular uprisings throughout Europe had gradually transformed him into a violent absolutist, a czar in the worst sense of that word. "He spent all his later years in aiding the despotic rulers of Spain, Italy, and Germany to crush every uprising among their subjects for political freedom." (3) The Liberals of Russia, the number of which had become very large through contact of Russian armies with Napoleonic Europe, were bitterly disappointed.

**Nicholas I.** (1) In 1825 Alexander I. was succeeded by his brother Nicholas I. (1825-1855), "a terrible incarnation of autocracy." Carrying out his brother's policy, he tried his best to cut loose from the liberalizing ideas of Western Europe. (2) In 1828 he declared war against Turkey, from whose despotic power little Greece was then trying to free herself. Had not the jealousy of England and Austria intervened, Nicholas would probably have captured Constantinople. As a result of negotiations which followed, Russia gained territory and prestige, while Greece, whose guardians England, France, and Russia became, obtained her freedom. (3) Between the years 1830 and 1832 Nicholas once more crushed the Poles. (4) Nicholas was the uncompromising foe of Turkey, whose Sultan he called the "sick man," and whose estates he would gladly have divided with England. When the Sultan rejected his demand to protect

Greek Christians in the Ottoman dominions, Nicholas prepared for war. Strange to say, England and France took the Sultan's side. England feared that if Russia got possession of the Bosphorus her Eastern possessions would be endangered. France wanted to retrieve the disgrace of Moscow. Sardinia joined England and France through the policy of the far-sighted Cavour. Thus came the Crimean War (1853-1856). "The main interest of the struggle centred about Sebastopol, in the Crimea, Russia's great naval and military dépôt, and the key to the Euxine." It was in the long siege of Sebastopol that "the English Light Brigade earned immortality in their memorable charge at Balaklava." The Russians had to yield at last. Among other important results, "the Christian population of the Turkish dominions were placed under the guardianship of the great powers, who were to see that the Sublime Porte fulfilled its promise of granting perfect civil and religious equality and protection to all its subjects." Nicholas I. had died before the war was over.

**Alexander II.** (1) "Alexander II. (1855-1881), who came to the Russian throne in the midst of the Crimean War, abandoned the narrow and intolerant policy of his predecessor Nicholas, and, reverting, as it were, to the policy of Peter the Great, labored for popular reform and for the introduction into his dominions of the ideas and civilization of Western Europe." (2) His name

has become forever illustrious through his emancipation of the serfs of Russia. After a revolt of the Poles in 1863 he adopted "a more reactionary policy, a policy which, persistently pursued, has yielded bitter fruit in Nihilism." The massacre of Syrian Christians by Druses and Turks in 1860 and the Bulgarian massacres of 1876 caused Alexander II. to go to war with Turkey in 1877. England again saved the "sick man's" estates. (3) On March 13, 1881, Alexander was assassinated by Nihilists. It was the natural fruit of the "exile system" to which he had become a partner in the government of Russia.

**Alexander III.** (1) The son of the assassinated Alexander, as Alexander III., pursued an intolerable system of repression, reverting with a heavy rebound to the exclusive system of Nicholas I. The battle which he undertook to fight with his liberty-loving subjects went against him more and more up to the time of his death.

**Nicholas II.** (1) In 1894 the son of Alexander III., and a grandson of Queen Victoria on his mother's side, became Nicholas II. Heir to a throne heavily burdened in many ways, the young Czar, like his uncle, Edward VII., and his cousin, William II., has already won the confidence of his subjects and the admiration of the world. (2) To begin with, Nicholas II. rules his subjects with a most gratifying liberality, thus winning his way into their hearts. In the next place, he proposes to

give his country all the advantages of Western civilization. The attitude of the Czar in the late war of the great powers on China has not always been satisfactory to the world, but, considering that his proposition of disarmament has been rejected by other European powers, it can hardly cause surprise that he should wish to strengthen his position in Asia. Already virtually in possession of the countries that bound China on the north and north-west, with England pushing towards his possessions from the south and east, we can hardly blame the Czar for building a trans-Siberian railroad, and adding monstrous warships of American build to his navy. (3) That in the game of occupying "unoccupied" China the Czar will presently take a hand can hardly be doubted, and that a conflict with England, which seems imminent, will involve many other countries, including the United States, is an unpalatable but undoubted probability.

### ITALY

(1) We left Italy at the close of the Middle Ages a struggling mass of disunited states. (2) From the time of Charles VIII. of France to Napoleon's downfall Italy was the camping-ground and bone of contention for Turks, Spaniards, Austrians, and French, with nothing but disadvantage to herself. (3) The Congress of Vienna (1815) condemned Italy to the ignominious slavery of restored Austrian despots. The restored princes

ruled so arbitrarily that Italy, long determined to be free, finally could not endure things any longer. Thus came the unsuccessful *Carbonari* insurrection in 1820 and the equally ill-fated revolution of 1830 in the "papal states." Plans for the nationalization of Italy began to take shape before 1848, especially that of "Young Italy," with the patriot Joseph Mazzini as its head. Crushed by the Austrians a third time (1848-1849), all parties began to look to Sardinia as the basis of free and united Italy. The throne of Sardinia, a state of Northwest Italy, was at this time held by Victor Emmanuel II. (1849-1878). His famous minister, Count Cavour, a man of large hopes and large plans, supported by Napoleon III., with whom he had shrewdly allied Italy, enabled Emmanuel to win the two great victories of Magenta and Solferino against the Austrians. As a result of forced peace negotiations, Sardinia (1860) obtained Lombardy. Other Italian states now united themselves to Emmanuel's kingdom. The outlaw hero Garibaldi, a most romantic and wonderful patriot, was the means of bringing Sicily and Naples into political union with Sardinia (1860). In 1866, as the result of Emmanuel's alliance with Prussia against Austria, he obtained coveted Venetia. In 1870 Rome, instead of Turin, the old Sardinian capital, became the capital of united Italy, and in 1871 Victor Emmanuel entered the city and took up his residence there.



**Victor Emmanuel II.** Notwithstanding much antagonism between the *Quirinal* and the *Vatican*, Victor Emmanuel's reign was signally successful. "A public system of education has been established; brigandage has been suppressed; agriculture has been encouraged, while the naval and military resources of the peninsula have been developed to such an extent that Italy, so recently the prey of foreign sovereigns, of petty native tyrants, and of adventurers, is now justly regarded as one of the great powers of Europe." Victor Emmanuel died, full of honors, in 1878.

**Humbert I.** The son of Emmanuel II. became Humbert I. of Italy in 1878. "The most notable event of his reign is the formation of the Triple Alliance (1883)." He was assassinated by an Italian anarchist from New Jersey (1900).

**Victor Emmanuel III.** Humbert's son is the present King of Italy under the title of Victor Emmanuel III. He has a firm hold on the affairs of Italy. Strictly attentive to business, liberal in policy, and strong in alliance and a fine navy, the new king, pursuing the course of a man who knows his own mind, will have to be counted among the important rulers of Europe.

#### UNITED STATES

"The most important of all histories to an American is that of his own country. Not only does it appeal to his patriotism, but in it is found,

as nowhere else, the story of self-government by the people." It is the purpose of this chapter to trace rapidly, in harmony with the rest of general history, the rise, growth, and character of our own country.

**Settlements.** (1) Until 1492 the Western Continent was, for all practical purposes, unknown to Europe. In that year Christopher Columbus—we all know the facts—gave Europe a New World, soon afterwards named, not Columbia, as one might have expected, but America, after Amerigo Vespucci, who first gave an account of the new world. (2) The voyages of the Cabots (1497-1498) and that of Magellan (1512) completed the period of discoveries. (3) The sixteenth century, the century of the Reformation in Europe, was a century of exploration and conquests in the New World. Spain led the way, exploring much of what now constitutes the United States, Mexico, and South America. The names of the explorers, Ponce de Leon, De Narvaez, and De Soto, together with those of Cortez, the conqueror of Mexico (1519-1521), and Pizarro, the conqueror of Peru (1532-1536), are probably most familiar. The French followed. Among the important French explorers were Cartier and Champlain. The missionary settlements of the Huguenots in Canada and those of the Jesuits in the valley of the Mississippi are thrillingly interesting. The English, basing their claims on the discoveries of the Cabots,

also sent explorers and made settlements. The names of Drake, Gilbert, and Raleigh stand out prominent. The first permanent English colonies were those at Jamestown (1607), and at Plymouth by the Puritan Pilgrims (1620). Henry Hudson, in the employ of the East India Company, came in 1609, and out of the trading-station established in 1614 grew the city of New York. (4) The seventeenth century, to which we have already referred, was a century of colonial settlements, beginning, as has just been stated, with permanent colonies in Virginia, Massachusetts, and New York. Others followed in rapid succession. The Quakers under William Penn founded Philadelphia in 1682. Indian massacres and intercolonial quarrels, arising from conflicting claims, were not infrequent in this formative period of the "Thirteen Colonies." Their early development in government, religion, education, and commerce deserve most careful study.

**Colonial Wars.** "The year 1689 was an important turning-point in American history. With it began the long struggle between England and France for colonial independence. It inaugurated an era of war which continued, without interruptions, for nearly a century, and ended in the independence of the United States of America and the formation of a new government in 1789, just a century later." (1) The first of these struggles was King William's War (1689-1697), a colonial

extension of the quarrel between William III. of England and Louis XIV. of France. (2) Queen Anne's War (1702-1713) was a continuation of the same quarrel by Queen Anne, the successor of William and Mary. Indian massacres were among the dreadful accompaniments of these colonial wars. (3) King George's War (1744-1748) was also a contest reflected from a quarrel between England and France. The capture of Louisburg by New England Provincials is the only event of note. (4) The French and Indian War (1754-1763) was of colonial origin. It was caused by the collision of French and English colonial land claims in the valley of the Ohio. In this war George Washington became known to the world, and the decisive event in the struggle was Wolfe's brilliant victory over Montcalm at Quebec, 1759. The peace of 1763 gave Canada to England, but the claim of the Indians was ignored, and for this injustice the colonies suffered many indescribable sorrows. (5) Finally came the Revolution of the Thirteen Colonies against the mother-country England (1775-1789). This revolution was a stupendous struggle against "taxation without representation." Among the most memorable events of this war must be mentioned the battles of Lexington, Bunker Hill, Trenton, and Saratoga. The various sessions of the Continental Congress, cabalistic conspiracies against Washington, the commander-in-chief of the colonial armies, the winter

at Valley Forge, and the treason of Arnold form thrilling chapters in the history of the American Revolution. The Declaration of Independence at Philadelphia (July 4, 1776) embodied the political, religious, and moral aspirations of the eighteenth century, and the Treaty of Paris (September 3, 1783) endorsed these aspirations for centuries. With the formation of the Constitution (1787), the ratification of which was finally completed on May 29, 1790, a new nation had been born. This nation was named "The United States of America."

**United States Government.** (1) The "Fathers" of the young republic, in order to avoid the dreadful consequences of absolutism and despotism, vested executive power constitutionally in an elective President limited to terms of four years and assisted in his duties by a Cabinet of his own selection. To these constitutional provisions against absolutism were added a legislative and judiciary body of popular representatives, both bodies, as a further precaution, being divided into upper and lower Houses. In accordance with the strict provisions of this Constitution, and as a tribute to the wisdom of its framers, only fifteen Amendments have thus far been made. (2) "When the question arose as to who should be the first President of the United States," all hearts instinctively turned to George Washington "as the man to whom the liberties of the country were due and who was most

worthy of the honor." He was inaugurated at New York, May 3, 1789, amid much rejoicing, and selected his Cabinet with singular wisdom. A new city, founded for the purpose, and to be called Washington, became the permanent capital in 1800. As a result of unsatisfied war claims and of complications with revolutionary France, it required all the diplomacy and forbearance of which the administration was capable to keep out of an armed conflict with England. Washington refused to stand for a third term. Retiring to beautiful Mount Vernon, he died on December 14, 1799. Of this noblest of Americans it has justly been said that he was "first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen." History proudly calls him the "Father of his Country." Washington's successors, perhaps without exception, constitute a long line of illustrious men in whose hands the government of the United States has become the pride of its great people and the admiration of the world, but of whom for obvious reasons we could not make conspicuous headings in so general a treatise as this, but whose names we must not pass by in connection with the landmarks of history for which they stand. (3) A characteristic feature of the government of the United States is its election system. National and State issues are decided by popular suffrage, from which, since the Civil War (1861-1865), no male citizen, except for proper reasons, has been ex-

cluded. Although capable of abuse, this election system with its direct appeal to the intelligence of the citizen, has produced great political parties, whose interests it has been to propose and carry out national policies to the satisfaction of the majority. The "spoils system," a calamitous consequence of "rotation in office," as inaugurated in Jackson's administration (1828-1836), was effectively corrected in Arthur's administration (1880-1884) by a "Civil Service Act," guarding the appointment to political offices by means of competitive examinations.

**United States Wars.** The political and international history of the United States, as of all nations, is inseparable from her wars. (1) In Madison's administration international complications caused the war of 1812 with England. Among the specific causes were "the impressment of American seamen, violation of neutral rights on the American coast by British cruisers, the British Orders in Council (by which American vessels were forbidden to enter any ports in Europe except those of Great Britain and her ally, Sweden), and the inciting of the Indians to war." Among the significant events of this war were the ocean victory of the American warship over the British "Guerrière," and Perry's illustrious victory on Lake Erie. "Perry's victory saved the Northwest." In 1814 the city of Washington was captured, with most serious consequences to her public

buildings and records. The final effort of Great Britain was made against New Orleans. Here General Andrew Jackson, later on President, on January 8, 1815, completely defeated the British General Pakenham. "As events proved, the slaughter of New Orleans was useless. A treaty of peace had already been signed" at Ghent. "The treaty left affairs very much as they were before. Great Britain did not give up the right of impressment. But no fear was felt that she would attempt to seize American seamen again." (2) Texas, admitted into the union with the consent of Mexico (July 4, 1845), "claimed that her western boundary was the Rio Grande River. Mexico held that the Nueces River was the true boundary. Between these two rivers lay a wide tract of land which both countries claimed. The question of its ownership led to war" (May 13, 1846). Taylor's victory over the Mexican General Santa Anna at Buena Vista, February 23, 1847, ended the war in that section. "The most important campaign of the war was intrusted to General Scott, the hero of Chippewa and Lundy's Lane in 1814." He finally captured the strong fortress Chapultepec by storm, and thus ended the war. "A treaty of peace was signed February 2, 1848, at the village of Guadalupe Hidalgo. It was highly advantageous to the United States." Out of the territory acquired "have been carved California, Nevada, Utah, Arizona, and part of Wyoming, Colo-



rado, and New Mexico.” (3) “In the annals of Virginia for 1619 we find the following remark by Rolfe, who married Pocahontas and introduced the culture of tobacco: ‘About the last of August came in a Dutch marine-of-war, that sold us 20 Negars.’ With this brief record began the long chain of events that led to the Civil War” (1861-1865). Finally “the question of slavery had become the most persistent and complex in American political life.” Prominent ever since the foundation of the Union, gradually it had crowded all other questions to the background. In 1860 fifteen States employed slave labor. The sixteen other States did not. The former were commonly called Southern or slave States, and the latter Northern or free States. The Presidential election of 1860 disclosed the nation drawn up in sectional lines. Mr. Lincoln uttered a great truth when he declared, in 1858, that “This government cannot permanently endure half slave and half free. . . . It will become all one thing or all the other.” “An overwhelming electoral defeat proved to the Southern States that they could not in the Union extend their peculiar labor system beyond their own borders. Inside their own borders they believed that system in danger. Eleven States asserted that they had a right to secede, passed enactments withdrawing from the Union, and formed a political association under the name of the Confederate States of America.” The first

gun was fired when Fort Sumter, off Charleston, South Carolina, was attacked by the Confederate General Beauregard, on April 12, 1861. The surrender of the Confederate General Lee to General Grant took place at Appomattox Court-House, in Virginia, on April 9, 1865. These two events mark the armed beginning and conclusion of a civil war which, as to the number of soldiers engaged, the number of battles fought, and the cost of the struggle, is unequalled in history. "The arbitrament of the sword decided two questions which, with equal definiteness and permanence, could be determined in no other way. The first question concerned the American Union, the permanence of which was demonstrated and guaranteed. There was to be but one flag from the Atlantic to the Pacific, from the Lakes to the Gulf. The second question concerned the system of human slavery, which was abolished from the continent. Under the protection of that flag all were to be free men." The return of the victorious and the vanquished to the pursuits of peace was the astonishment of the whole world. (4) The Cubans, oppressed by "a corrupt and despotic colonial system which ignored local interests and sought only the advantage of Spain, remote on the other side of the ocean," felt their wretchedness more and more, and gradually became irresistibly anxious to possess and exercise some of the natural rights which their American neighbors enjoyed. The

century which has just closed witnessed several Cuban insurrections of gigantic proportions, the first one in 1868 and the last one in 1894. Even the notorious General Wyler could not end the war. Sympathy for outraged Cuba made the people of the United States anxious to take a hand against despotic Spain. The last straw that broke the camel's back was the dastardly destruction of the American battleship "Maine" in the harbor of Havana (February 15, 1898). Actual war began on April 21, 1898. To Americans this war was rendered memorable by the victory of Admiral Dewey in Manila Bay (May 1) when the fleet of Admiral Montojo was destroyed, by the annihilation of the squadron of Admiral Cervera off Santiago harbor (July 3), and by the surrender of the city of Santiago and of the adjacent district, with all the troops and ammunitions of war (July 17). The conflict had lasted only ninety-six days when peace negotiations were begun through M. Cambon, French Ambassador at Washington (July 26). "An attempt at this early day to sum up the consequences would be presumption." Among other results we note the war of the United States with the Philippines, which happily at this writing has about closed. As a general result of the whole course of events, America has, almost against her will, "taken her seat in the parliament of nations." (5) In 1900 the "Boxers," an anti-foreign association of Chinese, originating from commercial

imprudences, and particularly bitter against Christian Missionaries, attempted wholesale massacres. Among the besieged in Peking were the foreign legations, including the United States Minister to China, Mr. Conger, and his attachés. The powers of Europe and the United States at once demanded satisfaction, and prepared to relieve the strain of the situation. The Chinese government, inspired very probably by the Dowager Empress, confessed its inability to cope with the Boxers. Thereupon relief expeditions were sent to China, among them one from the United States, and after severe fighting, Peking was captured and the members of the legations saved from horrible death. The Chinese court, however, had escaped to the North. After long negotiations between the court and the foreign states, conducted chiefly through Li Hung Chang and Mr. Conger, satisfactory indemnities and promises of good behavior closed the war. For a while it looked as if the disintegration of the Chinese Empire was at hand, but the usual jealousy of the powers of Europe, together with protestations on the part of the United States, has prevented this issue for the present. The foreign armies have left China and the Chinese court has returned to Peking.

**United States Treaties.** The political history of the United States includes reference to important treaties. Apart from those to which reference has been made in connection with wars, and apart

from the famous Missouri Compromise Bill of Clay, regarding the admission of slave States, various international quarrels about boundaries, fisheries, etc., have been effectively settled without armed conflicts. Among the most significant treaties of this character was the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty (1850) between England and the United States. "By this treaty both the United States and Great Britain renounced any exclusive control over the proposed ship-canal" through Nicaragua. At the same time, they both agreed to "neither occupy, fortify, nor colonize Nicaragua, Costa Rica, the Mosquito Coast, or any part of Central America." This treaty has not proved entirely satisfactory, and the Spanish-American war of 1898 emphasizes the fact that such a canal, wherever it may be built, "must be under the unshared control of the United States." One of the most remarkable and far-reaching treaties was Commodore Perry's treaty between the United States and Japan (May 31, 1854). "It was agreed that the ports of Shimoda and Hakodate should be open to American vessels, that an American consul should reside at Shimoda, and that Americans should enjoy a certain liberty of trade and travel in some of the coast cities." This treaty virtually opened the doors of Japan to all nations. Another very important treaty was Burlingame's treaty for us with China (1868), establishing embassies for both countries. Chinese im-

migration, however, made the Geary Act necessary (1892), excluding Chinese, with some exceptions, from this country. Even the diplomacy of Wu Ting Fang, late Chinese minister to this country, failed to remove this, as it certainly seems, necessary protection of home-labor in the United States. In 1872 a treaty regarding the northwestern frontier between the United States and the British possessions, gave a group of islands between Vancouver Island and Washington Territory to the United States. In 1877 two commissioners of arbitration, reinforced by the Belgian minister to the United States, decided that the United States "should pay \$5,500,000 for the use of the fishery privileges for twelve years." The matter has been satisfactorily adjusted quite lately. In 1894 the Canadian sealers agreed to accept \$425,000 in full settlement of their claims against the United States, but the dispute is not yet closed. "A humble and comprehensive apology" by the Chilian minister of foreign affairs (1892) probably prevented war with that country. Lord Salisbury's consent to a treaty of arbitration between Venezuela and Great Britain (1897), following a testy message to the United States Congress by President Cleveland (1895), saved the United States from possible war with Great Britain as the protector of Venezuela in a boundary quarrel. The war with Spain (1898) has emphasized the im-

portance of the annexation of Hawaii (1898) on request of the islanders.

### **Material Resources of the United States.**

It would be absolutely incommensurate with the "general" history idea to chronicle the stages of progress in our material resources. It must suffice simply to call the student's attention to the remarkable developments of agricultural, mining, and manufacturing interests. Under the mighty stimulus of inventions, such as the "cotton-gin," steam and electric machinery, and a host of transportation agencies, industry and commerce have placed the United States in the fore-front of the nations. The colonial and revolutionary money difficulties have nearly all disappeared since the re-establishment of national banks, so unceremoniously disturbed in Jackson's administration; and since the "gold standard" has become practically permanent, panics and fluctuation in capital are less frequent. Whether the United States can escape serious complications as a result of large trusts and monopolies is quite a question.

**Population.** Among the most fascinating subjects in connection with the United States is the growth and character of our population. Originally made up chiefly of English, French, Spanish, Dutch, and Swedes, with the predominance of the English, the colonies rapidly acquired large numbers of Germans, etc. Then, too, there were the native Indians and the imported negroes. The re-

markable "westward movement" of population in consequence of the California "gold fever" has not ceased, and finds companion-pieces only in the exodus to Australia later on and to Alaska within the last few years. Since the Civil War the character of immigration is not so satisfactory. Large numbers of Chinese, Italians, and the "dregs of Europe" have been dumped upon our shores, much to the confusion of social conditions. Race riots, anarchistic plots, and strikes are among the calamitous results. But, notwithstanding some defects in the body politic, it is likely that the final results of immigration and its absorption by American institutions will be a highly satisfactory cosmopolitan population. The happiness of the American people is greatly enlarged by well-organized systems of amusements, by parks, art, architecture, books, etc.

**Religion.** The early colonial bias towards intolerance, as in New England and Maryland, was a natural sequence of momentum acquired from European persecutions. Even before the Revolution a measure of religious tolerance and equality had come, and such superstitious commotions as "witchcraft" and exile for conscience' sake had become practically impossible. Among the fundamental guarantees of the United States Constitution is religious freedom and equality before the law. This provision was designed to prevent an American repetition of European religious persecutions,—a repetition which, judging from colo-



nial intolerance, seemed quite probable. Puritans, Quakers, Huguenots, Catholics, etc., all flocked to this "home of the free." With a few important exceptions, there is no denominational exclusion from political offices, and all denominations, including even the Mormons, etc., are allowed freedom of worship. The individuality thus encouraged is not only thoroughly democratic, but, with some exceptions, highly conducive to good government.

**Education.** Among the remarkable things in the history of the United States is the progress along educational lines. Backward as the Southern colonies, inspired by sentiments similar to that of Governor Berkely, of Virginia, were in the education of the masses, William and Mary College was founded as early as 1692. The Northern colonies, inspired by educated leaders and religious consideration, laid the foundations of a public school system almost as soon as settlements became permanent; and Harvard College was founded in 1636. The Quakers made provisions for the education of the masses in the year of their founding of Philadelphia (1682). From little beginnings, and long hampered progress until the Civil War, the educational system of the United States to-day has come to provide for all classes from the lowest to the highest, and, supported by generous appropriation of lands, taxes, etc., with an ever-improving system of normal schools and universities, the pros-

pects are exceedingly encouraging. Newspapers, magazines, libraries, travel, etc., add largely to the sum total of the education of the American people.

**Literature.** (1) Even Colonial days produced some writers of fame, among them Jonathan Edwards, the New England divine. "The first printing-press in this country was set up at Cambridge, Massachusetts, in 1639." (2) The war for American independence produced political writers. Among the permanent results are Jefferson's "Declaration of Independence," and the "Federalist" collections of Hamilton, Jay, and Madison. (3) The greater leisure of the nineteenth century has given us Washington Irving's "Sketch Book" (1819), Bryant's "Thanatopsis," and the later charming poems of Poe, Whittier, Longfellow, Lowell, and Holmes. (4) Fiction probably scored its first victory in Cooper's "Spy" (1821). As history efforts we name Bancroft's "History of the United States," Prescott's brilliant works, and the fine sketches of Parkman. (5) Emerson probably best represents philosophical essays. Nor should we forget Wheaton's "International Law," and the famous works of Audubon and Wilson on birds, or Webster and Worcester on words. Periodical literature has come in such abundance, and characterized by such strokes of power in all directions, that one feels almost lost in the attempt to read even the best writers.

References : (1) Duruy ; (2) Morris.

## WORLD PROSPECTS

WE are constrained to close our book with a line or two on the prospects before us. (1) Judging from the vigorous policy of the European powers to divide among themselves all "unoccupied" lands, a policy as questionable as it is old, it is likely that Asia, Africa, and Oceanica will gradually be appropriated in all parts, either by armed force or international arbitration, and even the United States, adhering quite consistently to the Monroe doctrine up to the present, will probably, in self-interest, have to take a hand in these proceedings, especially in Asia. The most imminent conflict is that between Great Britain and Russia for preponderance or supremacy in Asia, which in great part these two formidable powers already occupy. Africa and Oceanica have already been pretty exactly parcelled out between European nations, with the prospect of predominance, in both cases, of Great Britain. In the far distance we see an African republic like that of the United States, accompanied probably by free Canada and free Australia. (2) The present Industrial Age, characterized by vast projects of material development, promoted to a great degree by the "territorial expansion" consequent upon wars of conquest and

international "reciprocity" in commerce, and made possible by increased facilities of transportation and intercommunication, by means of railroads, ships, canals, telegraph, telephone, automobiles, etc., will probably lay the material foundations for a new age whose distinctive and glorious characteristic shall be intellectuality and spirituality. We deplore that for the present this halcyon prospect is hardly credible, and yet such is the nature of man and our conceptions of God, that we firmly believe in a far more perfect humanity, an approach at least to the "image of God" in which we have been made. As a confirmation of the conclusion in question we need only consider the adaptability of world-connections as produced by marches of armies, routes of commerce, and the fruits of travel, international expositions, newspapers, philanthropists, missionaries, etc. May the Golden Days be the glory of the Twentieth Century!

## INDEX REMARKS



IT is intended that teachers using this book as the basis of lesson-assignments shall require students to work out the lessons in connection with larger texts, such as that of Myers or Duruy, in which cases the index of the authors in question will have to be faithfully consulted. For cross-reference from other texts to this book, its Table of Contents will be a sufficient guide.



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